

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 14, 1889.

The Week.

THE latest correspondence between Prince Bismarck and Mr. Bayard on the Samoan question ought to be satisfactory to us. The German Chancellor invites a conference on the express basis of the independence of the Samoan islands, and the neutral—that is, equal—position of all the treaty Powers therein. As this is all that we have ever contended for, there can hardly be a doubt that the conference will have a happy result. Mr. Bayard's acceptance of the invitation is accompanied with a suggestion that Germany should refrain in the meantime from seeking satisfaction for the killing and wounding of some fifty of her sailors by one of the warring factions at Apia recently. "If," he says, "we may indulge the hope which the adoption of this suggestion promises for a successful issue of the conference, the Government of the United States will at once take steps to be properly represented at the meeting of such conference in Berlin." This phraseology would seem to make the conference hinge on a cessation of hostilities between the German forces and those of Mataafa. Although this has apparently been agreed to by Bismarck, it is not probable that he will ever forget the slaughter of his men, or fail to secure justice for them in the end. He will do what we should do under like circumstances—exact an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth.

The Nicaragua Canal Bill has now passed both houses of Congress, and simultaneously the Panama Canal Company has passed into dissolution, or at all events into a state of suspended animation. It is the common belief in this country that if the Panama property, as it now stands, and the Nicaragua project, with not a spadeful of earth turned, were offered in competition for the purposes of inter-oceanic transit, the latter would be the cheaper of the two. This is the opinion of Admiral Ammen, who is certainly the best authority on this side of the ocean, if not the best in the world. Our people are not much given to investing their money in foreign countries, but there is a strong probability that the Nicaragua Canal will be taken up and carried forward to completion. For the purposes of navigation between our Atlantic and Pacific ports it has the advantage over the Panama route of about 2,000 miles in the way of distance, and the same advantage as between England and the North Pacific ports. Probably English capital will join the venture if Americans show a disposition to go ahead with it. The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty secures to Great Britain an equal voice with this country in fixing the maximum tolls on the canal and in protecting the entrances to the

same. This treaty was one of the subjects of discussion in Congress while the bill was under consideration, but was not deemed of sufficient importance to impede the passage of the bill. The opinion seemed to prevail that in time of peace the joint protectorate could do no harm, and that in time of war the entrance to the canal would be under the control of the strongest Power, treaty or no treaty.

Anxiety lest the privilege of completing the Panama Canal should pass into the hands of foreigners is still "played for all it is worth" in Paris. It may be worth something in France, where *la gloire* and *la grandeur nationale* and such fustian really command a good deal of cash. But anxiety to take up the privilege of finishing the canal has not been shown in any other part of the world. In this country the only anxiety felt is to get American citizens who may happen to be on the isthmus out of the *mêlée* when the pay of laborers stops and the demands of hunger are felt along the line of the works. The administrators who have succeeded to the powers of the Lesseps Company have arranged with the contractors for continuing the work until February 15 by offering as security the unpledged shares of the Panama Railway, the last of the company's assets and the only one that has a market value. This arrangement was made in the expectation of reorganizing the company, issuing preference shares, to take precedence of all outstanding securities, to the extent of 5 per cent. per annum until and after the opening of the canal, and 16 per cent. of the subsequent profits. The subscription to these shares was limited to the present share and bondholders. The subscription closed on the 2d inst., and was a complete failure. Under these circumstances the appropriation of \$250,000 by the Senate to enable the President to protect or bring away destitute American citizens from the isthmus was a very proper proceeding.

A syndicate of State Legislatures is a new thing in American polity. Such a phenomenon is in course of promotion or incubation at the West, to deal with what is called the Dressed-Beef Combine. The Senate of the United States also has the subject under consideration, a committee having been appointed last year to take testimony and report upon it. This committee held sessions at St. Louis and other Western cities, and is expected to make some kind of a report before the adjournment of Congress. It seems, however, that the Legislatures of Missouri, Kansas, Tennessee, and half-a-dozen other States cannot wait for the action of their common agent, the Government of the United States, but must needs take the matter in hand themselves, not individually but collectively. It is said that eleven States have given their assent to the movement, whatever it may be. Naturally

there is a good deal of confusion as to the steps to be taken. The real grievance is cheap beef, the ostensible one being diseased beef. Mixed up with the grievances, real and pretended, is a deal of sympathy for the ranchmen on the plains, who, it is said, are suffering from the low prices of cattle, and are ground down by the Dressed-Beef Combine to starvation rates. So we have for the basis and *raison d'être* of the syndicate of Legislatures two real evils to be fought against, and one imaginary one, viz.: cheap beef, low-priced cattle, and inadequate inspection laws.

We can understand how the last evil, the imaginary one, may be met, if any single Legislature has the courage to grapple with it, the Granger Meat Bill of Pennsylvania having blazed the way. But since the Legislature of that State, as well as that of Ohio, has been lacking in intrepidity, we do not see much prospect of advance in that direction. The syndicate of States will therefore be expected to give attention principally to the evil of cheap meat, and here the difficulties to be encountered are serious. France and Germany manage it by means of the tariff on imported meats. The former country can even protect one locality against another by octroi duties, as Paris has lately protected her own carpenters and cabinet-makers against the pauper labor of the provinces. With such examples before us, why should not the syndicate of Legislatures, or some one of them, memorialize Congress to authorize internal tariffs to protect the slaughtering industry of the several States? The Constitution says that "no State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports." The consent of Congress is the only thing needed to clear the way for the discouragement of cheap beef. A duty of two or three cents per pound would probably be all that the local butchers would need. How this step would help the ranchmen to a higher price for their cattle is not so clear. Perhaps a bounty on steers of a certain weight, to be paid under regulations of the Internal Revenue Department, would meet that difficulty.

There has been much discussion as to the effect of next year's census upon the apportionment of Representatives, and by consequence upon the number of Presidential electors, but some newspapers are now saying that such an apportionment cannot be made in time to affect the election of 1892. There is no reason, either in the nature of things or in the precedents, for this assertion. On the contrary, an apportionment bill was passed by the House at the session of Congress which followed the taking of the last census—in the winter of 1880-81—although it failed to get through the Senate. It will be entirely practicable for the Fifty-first Congress to pass a bill, and there

is no reason to doubt that it will do so, especially as the indications are that the Republicans, who will control both branches, will find a partisan advantage in having the expected changes in the division of the electoral vote go into effect in the next Presidential election.

As the New Hampshire Legislature does not meet until after the middle of June, while the term of Senator Chandler expires on the 4th of March, the Governor has the power of naming the man who shall fill the seat during that period, and he has appointed Gen. Gilman Marston, who has been a prominent figure in the State during a long career and has for many years aspired to the Senatorship. He is now in his seventy-eighth year, and cannot expect to continue in the office beyond this brief period, by reason of his age. The importance of his appointment lies in its bearing upon the action of the Legislature when it comes to make a choice, and this is distinctly unfavorable to "Bill" Chandler's ambition for another term. The naming of any other person than himself places an obstacle in his way, and for this reason he has been laboring to secure the appointment. It will not do, however, to feel much confidence that Chandler will fail. The melancholy feature of the case is that he appears to represent fairly New Hampshire Republicanism, and consequently to be entitled, on party grounds, to another term.

The appointment of a Senator from New Hampshire leaves the seat from West Virginia the only one falling vacant on the 4th of March which has not yet been disposed of. The tangle in that State appears to grow more involved every week, and a man needs to give up a large share of his time if he tries to keep track of the daily crop of rumors and intrigues. The balance of power in the Legislature appears to be held by a small contingent of labor men, who mean to get the highest possible terms for their influence. Senator Kenna is out of favor with them, and his chances of a reelection now seem very poor. Outside New Hampshire and West Virginia the almost universal disposition has been to reelect incumbents, except where, as in Delaware and Virginia, the opposite party has come into power, or where, as in the case of Senator Palmer of Michigan, another term has been declined where it might have been had for the asking. Colorado and Minnesota are the only other States among the twenty-six which have Senatorships to fill that send new men.

"Shall Boodlers Dominate?" Such is the striking title of an exceedingly plain-spoken leading editorial article in the *Boston Journal*. The article is suggested by an expression used by Gen. William F. Draper of Hopedale, in declining to be considered a candidate for the Republican nomination for Governor in Massachusetts this year. After stating other reasons for his decision, Gen. Draper said: "I also do not care to enter

into the style of campaign for the nomination which seems to be requisite of late for a candidate supposed to have money." Gen. Draper speaks from experience. He was a candidate for the Republican nomination last year, and he learned then what "the style of campaign" had come to be. The *Journal* says the methods which he refers to "are pushed by a small army of boodlers who seek first a man who will bleed freely, and then enlist for the campaign, not with a view of giving the State the best man that is attainable, but with the sole object of putting money into their own pockets and securing influence when he is elected." It says further that "a man of wealth need only be mentioned as a possible candidate, and the harpies will surround him, and from the day that his name is suggested till success or failure is decided at the polls, he is the victim of this cankerous system which should be stamped out." Proceeding from generalities to particulars, it asks: "Is it not a sad commentary upon this Commonwealth and the tone of its people to know that the cost of securing a nomination for Governor has been in recent years as high as \$20,000, to say nothing of the expenses incidental to the election?" These latter expenses, it adds, are put at "thirty or forty thousand dollars," "with our present 'ways that are dark,'" although it believes that "with an honest system not one-quarter of this amount can be judiciously expended."

The *Tariff League Bulletin* publishes a letter from the President-elect which we fear is liable to be wrongly interpreted. The letter is as follows:

INDIANAPOLIS, Ind., January 21, 1889.
Edward H. Ammidown, Esq., New York city.
MY DEAR SIR: I have not been able sooner to acknowledge your telegram of the 18th, extending to me the congratulations of the American Protective Tariff League. Let me assure you that I appreciate very highly this cordial expression, and that it will be my sincere purpose to meet the just expectations of those who not only rejoice in the result of the late election, but whose contribution to that success was so earnest and so large.
With kind regards for you, sir, personally,
I am, Very sincerely yours,
BENJ. HARRISON.

It is not customary for Presidents of the United States to publicly thank persons who have made "large" contributions to the success of the party in a political campaign, because it is like saying: "Gentlemen, your money was very useful in this fight. I don't know how we could have got on without it, having so many blocks-of-five to pay for. It will accordingly be my sincere purpose to meet your just expectations." But the word contribution may be interpreted in another way—that is, as a contribution of influence, of sympathy, and other non-material but effective support; and we prefer to believe that that is what Gen. Harrison meant when he described the contribution of the American Protective Tariff League as "so earnest and so large."

"A Merchant" comes to the defence of John Wanamaker in *Harper's Weekly*, and, after the usual accounts of Mr. Wanamaker's business success and liberality with

his money, comes down to the question. The observations which his apology suggests are the following: Seeing that Mr. Wanamaker has a voucher for every disbursement of his committee, and that these disbursements are made the ground of attacks on him by which he and friends are annoyed, why does he not do what all good men do when they are attacked about their use of money—submit the accounts and vouchers to hostile or disinterested audit and publication? His friends have been boasting a good deal, ever since he was charged with burning his accounts, of the fact that he has every voucher in his possession, as if the burning of his accounts were the main charge against him. But the only use of vouchers is to protect the custodian of money against those who would say that it had been either paid to the wrong persons or for bad purposes, or had been converted to his own use. Unless vouchers are available for this purpose they have no value whatever. They might as well be lost or burned. To cry out about vouchers, "I have them, but you shan't see them," is very foolish. There is nothing indecent about vouchers. It is not usual to lock them up like bad books, lest the children and servants should get at them.

The charge against Mr. Wanamaker which the "Merchant" studiously ignores, is not that he spent the money he gave or raised for the canvass in "toys, or lust, or wine," or that he used it himself in bribery or corruption—the "Pharisees," as Judge Gresham calls them, hardly ever do that—but that he gave what he raised to a man whose character he knew to be bad, who was noted in Philadelphia as a corruptionist of the worst type, and who Mr. Wanamaker had every reason, except actual complicity in his past crimes, to believe would put it in the canvass to unlawful or immoral uses; and that, finally, Mr. Wanamaker tried, but happily failed, to raise in this city a sum of \$350,000, in the last week of the campaign, when it was impossible that it could have been used for legitimate expenses.

There was a very lively time at the weekly meeting of the Central Labor Union on Sunday, chiefly because a member, named William Shakespeare, remarked that a "Walking Delegate was a delegate who always walks in the direction of whiskey." A resolution was prepared and adopted denouncing Shakespeare and calling upon him for an apology, but he refused to make it. There seemed to be a feeling at the meeting that there was sufficient truth in the remark to make it stick to all Walking Delegates for some time unless it was withdrawn; and any one who has observed the habits of Walking Delegates will admit that there is good reason for this belief. The fact that observations of this truthful kind are heard now at nearly every meeting of the Central Labor Union, shows that the light is breaking in what have hitherto been the darkest corners of the laboring men's minds.

Apropos of country roads, which a month from now people will begin to think about once more, a bill has been introduced in the New Jersey Legislature, which, if passed, will bring about a much-needed reform in that State, and probably show the way to it in others. It empowers the Boards of Freeholders to make maps of all the roads, and on such maps to mark off the roads which they adjudge to be county roads, and as such are to be maintained and kept in order by the county. The Boards are then to have power to have the county roads so set apart "graded, paved with telford, macadamized, or otherwise improved by means of stone for a width of at least twelve feet in the centre thereof," by contract on advertised bids. To provide money for this, they are to be authorized to levy a special tax of not more than a quarter of 1 per cent. on the assessed value of taxable property of the county, or, if necessary, to issue county bonds, with the permission of the Circuit Court on cause shown. One-third of the cost is to fall on the cities, towns, townships, or boroughs through which the roads pass. The Freeholders are further to be authorized—and this is very important—to employ a competent engineer at an annual salary to inspect the roads and order repairs on them. We sincerely trust the bill may become a law and that the movement may spread. We can think of nothing which would do more to revive the rapidly declining taste for living in the country.

There is, of course, a ludicrous side to the fight which William O'Brien carries on with his jailers over his prison clothes; but it is quite plain now, and, indeed, was plain from the beginning to anybody but a Tory, that O'Brien is going to have the best of the laugh, or, in other words, that the treatment inflicted on him is egregious political folly. The determination to treat the Irish political prisoners as ordinary felons, against all previous English usage, was formed by the Tory Government, with the half-hearted approval of the Liberal-Unionists, for two reasons. One was, that it would make the sentences of imprisonment inflicted without juries, by the magistrates, so formidable that the offences against which they were directed—that is, encouraging boycotters and discouraging persons from taking evicted farms—would promptly cease. The other was, that they would disgrace and degrade the prisoners in the eyes of the community. Neither expectation has been realized. The Irish members of Parliament continue to make the obnoxious speeches, and print the obnoxious articles, and go to jail in as great numbers as ever, and being in jail the rigor of their treatment makes martyrs of them, and is finally rousing the indignation of the phlegmatic English masses. The speeches for which they are sent to jail would be lawful if made in England or Scotland—a fact which shocks the English sense of justice; and finally, their whole action as Irish agitators is confessedly considered either innocent or praiseworthy by almost half the voters of England and by a majority of the

voters of Scotland and Wales. This may be, from the Conservative point of view, a deplorable state of things, but to act as if it did not exist is surely political fatuity worthy of King Bomba or Prince Metternich. Tearing the clothes off a delicate man—fool though he be—whose sincerity and disinterestedness nobody doubts, in order to punish him for fanatical speeches, made on behalf of the poor, is a spectacle which no democracy in our day will long endure without a great increase of fierceness. We shall probably see after the next general election in England a more violent rush than ever in the Radical direction, and see the ruthlessness of the Radical temper greatly increased.

It is interesting to know the attitude of what may be called literary Paris towards Gen. Boulanger. It was naturally to be presumed unfavorable, but there have been until lately few facts in the possession of the public on which to base an opinion. But in the week before the election of January 27 the *Matin* newspaper sent out a circular addressed to 340 well-known men of letters, artists, bankers, merchants, and the like—all "notabilities"—asking whether in their opinion the interests and honor of the country demanded a vote for Gen. Boulanger. The circular was sent out to arrive on Wednesday: in its issue of Friday the *Matin* said that it had received 185 answers to its question, of which 100 were No, and 17 Yes, while 66 declared for abstention, and there were two votes scattering. Only the names of those who signed their ballots were printed. In the list of those who voted no we note the names of MM. Ernest Renan, Jules Simon, Beaussire, Charcot, Leconte de l'Isle, Levasseur, Meissonier, F. Passy, Verneuil, Wallon, all of the Institute; Profs. Rambaud of the College of France, and Müntz of the Beaux-Arts; F. Sarcey and J. J. Weiss. The only voters of yes who signed their ballots were MM. Arsène Houssaye, Xavier de Montépin, L. Bonaparte-Wyse, and Cucheval-Clarigny. M. Duruy of the Academy, and late Minister of Public Instruction, wrote: "I am not an elector in Paris; if I were, I should vote decidedly no." M. Gérôme of the Institute, in a somewhat high note, indicated his preference for M. Pasteur, who might, he thought, have some cure for political rabies. M. Georges Ohnet, with more gayety than he at all times displays, declared that he could not decide between the Boulanger pill and the Jacques draught, and advised the *Matin* to call in Dr. Rameau.

Spanish political affairs of the last twelve-month present a singular example of the rapid oscillation of party fortune and prospects. The Liberal Ministry opened the year with an apparently consolidated party behind them, and with a good hope that apart at least of their programme might at last be carried out. Prime Minister Sagasta took every opportunity to get the reforms proposed by the Liberals before the country, and his resolute advocacy of a great extension of the suffrage, of thorough

military reorganization, and of a reformed civil code, met with marks of popular favor. But the harmony of his party was rudely threatened as early as last April: The protectionist faction of the Liberals, headed by Gamazo, and using the new and powerful Agrarian League as a lever, began to insist upon the adoption of their plans by the party as a whole. This could not be done without the most disastrous results. Yet Sagasta made some important concessions to the protectionists, agreeing to a lowering of the land-tax and of railroad freight charges, and to a thorough readjustment of the revenue laws in regard to alcohol and petroleum. But this only inflamed the appetite of the group it was intended to placate, and their agitation went on as strongly as before. The Conservatives naturally found this water for their mill. Canovas del Castillo stumped the provinces on the protectionist issue, arousing a popular excitement which gave promise of his speedy return to power.

But the Liberals slowly recovered their prestige. In this they were greatly helped by the success of the Barcelona Exposition, opened last May. It was the greatest thing of the kind ever done in Spain, and could not but feed the national pride and reflect credit on the Administration under which it was undertaken. But more lucky for the Liberals was the dead set which Canovas made against universal suffrage, or anything approaching it. This was a great political blunder. It at once alienated those large bodies of non-voting workingmen whom his siren songs in praise of protection promised to rally to his standard. It brought him a vast amount of popular disfavor, violently displayed in his mobbing at the hands of the students of the University and by the populace of Madrid. And the Liberals were not slow in following up the mistakes of their opponents with the enactment of positive and popular measures. They effected a good part of their proposed military reforms, completed the new Civil Code, and reaffirmed their devotion to the extension of the suffrage. For a time things looked rosy for them, but soon the pendulum took another swing. It appears to have been largely personal questions that led to the retirement from the Cabinet of Ministers Moret, Puigcerver, and Martinez, but their action was a terrible blow to the Administration, which seemed to be surely about to go to pieces. But Sagasta's patience and skill conquered the situation, temporarily at least, and latterly things have been running much more smoothly. Even against the powerfully backed demand for an import duty on cereals, he has held a majority together according to late despatches. It ought to be added that the feeble attempts to use dynamite recently made in Madrid, once even in the palace, have no great political significance; the correspondent of the London *Times* rightly attributes them to the petty malice of gamblers and other law-breakers whose business has been seriously interfered with by the police.

THE BYRNE REPORT.

WE return to this document because as long as such methods of administration as are revealed in it are possible, we cannot have a respectable and efficient civil service. Self-respecting and honorable men will never remain in an occupation in which their characters are likely to be assailed and their livelihood put in peril in this way. We say nothing of this mode of attacking wholesale the reputation of a large number of the leading business men of the city, as this report has done, by giving official currency to accusations of fraud got up behind their backs by an illiterate detective, although this, too, is a serious matter. That Byrne is illiterate the English of his report shows, and that he is a man without much self-respect is proved by the extreme, almost Oriental, servility of his language—something very new in American political documents. He never speaks of the Secretary except as “the honorable Secretary.” He does not wait for fresh instructions; he waits for “the esteemed commands of the honorable Secretary.” He treats unwillingness to obey his orders, as the familiar of the Secretary, as disrespectful to “the honorable Secretary,” and therefore little short of criminal.

He collected his evidence in two ways—first, as a detective does it, by going about through the offices and the streets, and picking up any information he could get about the accused persons or their affairs from any person he thought likely to know, and jotting down whatever they said that was of a damaging character; secondly, by examining the accused persons themselves under oath, on the assumption, in the French fashion, that they were guilty. The authority for this latter method is given to this ignorant man by Secretary Fairchild, in a letter for which we think no parallel can be found in the official literature of America or in that of England since 1688, and which we quote entire. That an American lawyer could have brought himself to write it is something amazing. It must be remembered that the persons to be examined were really persons whose reputation and livelihood were both put in peril by the proceeding; that the “special employee” who was examining them was both the prosecutor who accused them and the judge who was to pass on their guilt or innocence; that he was not, before he was employed in this business, in the public service at all; and that the most respectable of his previous and numerous callings was that of an unattached newspaper reporter; that he had no judicial or legal training whatever, and no previous practical acquaintance with the Custom-house business, or with the process of sugar-refining or testing.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
 OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY,
 WASHINGTON, D. C., July 1, 1887.
 To any Officer or Employee at the Appraiser's
 Store, New York:
 Special Officer T. Aubrey Byrne is instructed
 to administer to you the following oath:
 You do solemnly swear that the statements
 and answers you shall make relative to the in-
 vestigation now pending shall be the truth, the
 whole truth, and nothing but the truth, so help
 me God.

I direct, if you have any knowledge, direct

or indirect, or information of any kind relating in any manner to any fraudulent or irregular practices in the method or manner of sampling, testing, and appraising sugars, or of any matters connected therewith, you will state it to Special Officer Byrne without reservation. I desire further that nothing shall be said by you to any person about this examination or as to what you have testified, or the nature of the questions asked you, until permission has been given you by me.

I further desire that any officer or employee objecting or refusing to give the promise as above stated shall state his reasons therefor, and Special Officer Byrne is directed to write out said objections or refusal, which statements shall be signed by the officer or employee so objecting.

Special Officer Byrne is further directed, and is hereby authorized, to examine under oath Special Agent Hinds, Clerks Bauer, Rose, and Howard, and any other officer or employee connected with the Appraiser's store, New York, he may desire.

C. S. FAIRCHILD, Secretary.

Most if not all of those who were summoned under this letter, refused, as American citizens they were bound to do, to take this oath of secrecy, and were consequently treated by “the special officer” with great severity. Among these was Dr. Sherer, concerning whom Byrne had been doing active detective work. Anticipating his examination, Dr. Sherer put in the following very proper protest, dated July 1, 1887:

“The conviction forced upon me by facts within my knowledge that Mr. Byrne is not an unprejudiced investigator, justifies me in protecting myself against possible misrepresentation by all proper safeguards; and I ask that, should I comply with the Secretary's desire to take the oath of secrecy and testify, I be furnished, as soon as practicable, with a copy of my evidence, for use, if necessary, in my defence at the close of the inquiry.”

He had previously (June 28) made the following most reasonable request, that—

“should I be called to testify under oath to Mr. Byrne, he be requested to have a stenographer to take down questions and answers. Should Mr. Byrne decline to accede to my request, I ask that my request be noted upon his record of examination. If he declines my request for a stenographer, I have further to ask that his questions be submitted to me in writing and I be permitted to write the answers thereto, after being allowed due time for deliberation, and be permitted to read them all before answering any one of them.”

The character of Byrne's mind as a judicial organ may be inferred from the following observations which he makes on these documents:

“As no charges had been preferred against Dr. Sherer by me, his great anxiety to defend himself implies evidence of guilt, and is an exhibition of arrogance and presumption to my mind unbecoming of a public officer.

“The action of Dr. Sherer, reviewed in the light of his testimony, presents a case worthy of the most careful consideration of the Department.”

The report bristles with similar illustrations of Byrne's mental condition in conducting his inquiry, some very amusing.

We have been frequently asked, since this matter came up, what our theory of the affair is—whether we accuse Secretary Fairchild of deliberate unfairness for political or other illegitimate purposes. We do not. We believe him to have been imposed on by his subordinate, Assistant-Secretary Maynard, to whom he handed over at an early period the business of looking after the offices and things pertaining thereto. We believe that when the Byrne report was sent in, its flimsiness was fully recognized, and that there was no intention to make any

use of it until Mr. Maynard decided that the time had come for him to take a more active part in the “politics” of the Presidential situation, and he then resorted to the report as a justification for what is called “a shake-up” in the New York Custom-house. He began it by ordering the dismissal of fifteen officers of the Appraiser's Department, eleven of whom, however, he subsequently restored or left undisturbed, in spite of their “frauds,” some at the request of politicians. Even “Tim” Campbell was able to save one. When his action was assailed by us, and at our request investigated by the Hale Committee of the Senate, he was left in a position in which he needed help and support, which Secretary Fairchild has generously, but most rashly and injudiciously, given. We might use stronger epithets than these, because it has been given by fastening on several of his fellow-citizens in respectable standing in the community imputations from which no man should suffer in mind, body, or estate, except after judicial inquiry conducted by a proper tribunal. As long as Secretary Fairchild fails to support his allegations and insinuations against the Custom-house officers and merchants of New York, by such inquiry, he must expect to be the subject of severe criticism, however pure his motives may be.

TARDY CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

THE removal by the President of Mr. Edgerton as a member of the Civil-Service Commission, and the discussion in the Senate over a proposition to increase the clerical force of the Commission, call attention to the present condition and the future prospects of the reform. The removal of Mr. Edgerton is one of those good acts which lose their chief value from being too long postponed. He abundantly deserves to be removed, but so he has deserved almost from the day of his appointment, three years ago last November. The late Chief-Justice Waite is credited with having recommended Mr. Edgerton in the most unqualified terms on the strength of a long acquaintance; but it did not take long to show that, however amiable he might be as an acquaintance in private life, he was about the last man in the country for a Civil-Service Commissioner. His entire unfitness could not be more clearly shown than by mentioning the fact that his career has been such as to earn the hearty praise of Gorman, who paid this warm tribute to him in the Senate the other day: “He is an old-fashioned Democrat and an old-fashioned thinker, and he is the only man who has been connected with the Commission who by public expression ever showed that he thought the people of this country had any rights outside of the Civil-Service Commission. He has my entire respect and confidence.”

The hearty endorsement of Gorman would of itself be conclusive evidence of Mr. Edgerton's original disqualifications for the position, by reason of his being an old-fashioned spoils Democrat. But he proved even worse than his antecedents indicated. He has spent a large part of his time in open

ridicule of the whole idea of civil-service reform, and has been from the first as much out of place as a clergyman would be who received a salary as a representative of Christianity, and devoted his energies to praising some vanishing form of heathenism. His retention as a member of the Commission for more than three years has been an inexcusable blunder, which is not rectified by his late dismissal.

The Senate debate showed how strong is the opposition to the reform which still remains among members of both parties. It arose over an attempt by Gen. Hawley to strengthen the hands of the Commission by giving them two more clerks than the Appropriation Committee had allowed. Chairman Allison consented to one, but successfully opposed the granting of a second, and the discussion which followed covered the whole field of civil-service reform and of politics. Gen. Hawley clearly showed the necessity for the increased force by reason of the increased work imposed upon the Commission, and he vigorously defended the reform policy. In this attitude he was heartily sustained by Mr. Hoar; but no other Republican said anything to indicate an honest belief in reform, while Mr. Stewart, on that side of the chamber, and Senators Gorman and Daniel on the other, declared their opposition to the whole thing. The other speakers occupied the position of Mr. Plumb, who does "not believe in this precise kind of civil-service reform, and would not adopt it if I were to have my choice of the kind of civil-service reform that I would have practised," although, like him, they are "not prepared to abolish this."

There was a good deal of talk about the recent action of the Administration in putting the Railway Mail Service under the rules. The simple truth about this performance is that, like the removal of Mr. Edgerton, it is a good thing, which ought to have been done years ago. The Republican spoilsmen urged that it was an unfair attempt by the outgoing Democrats to "embarrass the Republican Administration," by "keeping in under some kind of arrangement a class of men who but for that would not be kept in at all;" and the Democratic spoilsmen retorted by showing that the Arthur Administration set the example by putting large classes of employees under the rules after Cleveland was elected in 1884. It was of course easy to show that the proposed change in the Railway Mail Service would not in the slightest degree impair the power of removal; and all that Mr. Plumb could say in answer was a confession that the only trouble about it would be that "we"—that is, the Republicans—would "have no control over the person to succeed" a man removed, and so could not be sure of getting in "their man."

Gen. Hawley and Mr. Hoar stood manfully by the doctrine laid down in the Republican national platform of 1888. The Connecticut Senator read the plank, "for the edification of those who believe the Republican party is right, and, it may be, for the amusement of those who look with incredulity upon this whole business, after an election at any rate"; and he declared that "these were

not merely pre-election promises," but "an honest assertion," and that "the party, whatever party, which has the management of the Government had better so consider it." Mr. Hoar was equally emphatic. As to the Railway Mail Service, he said: "I am glad that the present Administration, whether late or early, has extended this system to another branch of the civil service. President Cleveland, or the department officer on whose advice he acted, does not secure the retention in office of any unworthy or unfit Democrat by so doing, unless the appointing power is to be administered hereafter by some unworthy or some unfit Republican. He simply provides for taking away the political motive for turning these men out. If they are unfit either in character, or attainments, or special capacity for the particular service, or if for any other reason that can be conceived of they should be removed, that power will remain as heretofore." Mr. Hoar recalled the disgraceful features of the old spoils system, which he said "became absolutely intolerable," and in reply to a question as to how far he would extend the merit system, said:

"I would apply it, if I had my way, to every official in the country in an executive office whose duties were not of a political or a confidential nature, and whom it was not expedient to have in sympathy with the Administration when that Administration was carrying out its political theories and policies, in regard to which its opponents would be expected not to be in sympathy; and I would have it then apply to all the class of offices to which men of ordinary and average intelligence are competent."

Gen. Hawley made a valuable statement as to the enlargement of the scope of the reform, which he thought much greater than the Senate was aware of, and which is certainly much greater than the general public had any idea of. In 1883, when the Civil-Service Law went into operation, the classified civil service consisted of seven executive departments at Washington, eleven customs districts, and twenty-three post-offices, in each of which there were as many as fifty employees. The departments made 5,652 persons subject to examination, the customs districts 2,573, and the post-offices 5,699—in all not quite 14,000. Since then the system has been extended in the departments and applied to other post-offices which reached the fifty-employee limit, and now the numbers are as follows: In the departments nearly 9,000, in the eleven customs districts 2,298, in the forty post-offices about 11,000, and in the Railway Mail Service 5,320, in all 27,618, being an increase from 13,897 to 27,618, almost exactly doubling the number of persons subject to examination. Excluding the Postal Railway Service, the increase has been, in round numbers, from 14,000 to 22,000, which approaches nearly to one-fifth of the whole force of employees of all sorts in the Government service.

The most important feature about the reform is, that it never loses ground. Every step of advance is contested, and the spoilsmen are even yet going to try and defeat the application of the system to the Railway Mail Service before March 4 if they can through

legislation, but nobody any longer seriously thinks of repealing the law, and its steady extension is seen to be inevitable, simply because public opinion favors it.

ANOTHER PROHIBITION EXPERIMENT.

We gave an account recently of the successful operation of a prohibitory liquor law in the city of Cambridge, Mass. We showed that the law had been enforced there because intelligent public sentiment was not only earnest in its support, but was sufficiently aroused to organize itself formally against all violations of the law. The Mayor of the city coöperated with the Citizens' Association, and the two together gave such a constant moral support to the police that the latter pursued all persons attempting to sell liquor with such vigor as to drive them completely out of the city. Undoubtedly, as we pointed out, the enforcement of the law was aided by the fact that Cambridge is separated from Boston only by the width of the Charles River, and its inhabitants can easily obtain all the liquor they desire by a short journey. Still, the success of the experiment showed, first, that a prohibitory law could be successfully enforced in a community in which public sentiment was sufficiently strong and earnest in its behalf to combine, without regard to political distinctions, against all violations; second, that, being enforced, the gain to the moral and material welfare of the poorer classes of the community was instantaneous and great.

We now ask our readers' attention to another prohibition experiment, on a larger scale, and with quite opposite results. The prohibitory law of Rhode Island has been in force for more than two years. It was adopted at a State election in April, 1886, by a vote of 15,113 in favor, to 9,230 against, which was about the average full vote of the State. One might judge from the majority in its favor that public sentiment would compel its enforcement. As a matter of fact, however, it never has been enforced. We have before us the latest report of the officer in charge of its execution, the Chief of the State Police, and in it little pretence is made that the law has had any effect in even restricting the liquor traffic. Nothing is more striking in the report than the frankness with which the subordinate officials in the various cities and towns admit that the law is not enforced, and that the traffic is going on about as usual.

In some of the rural portions of the State the local officials report that there has been a decrease in the number of places in which liquor is known to be sold; but in all the larger places, there is either a report of increase in a greater or less degree, or a confession of ignorance on the subject, which amounts to the same thing. The largest city in the State is Providence, and from this the official report on violations of the law is: "Increased greatly on account of larger number of tenement-houses." From Newport the official report is: "A slight increase, owing to the inability to convict after apprehension." From Pawtucket, the second city

in size and a great manufacturing centre, the official report is: "I don't know." From New Shoreham, the official report is: "Increased; reason, no one takes any measures to stop the same." From Johnston: "Increased; reason, kitchen bar-rooms."

The tone of the various reports is almost invariably the same—one of entire indifference as to the failure of the law. This is the first and most striking characteristic of them, and we may add also that it is the leading characteristic of the Chief of State Police's report as well. The second point to be noted is the revelation made of the localities in which the increase of violations is most marked. The Providence official says it is in the "tenement-houses." The Johnston official says in "kitchen bar-rooms." This confirms a recent statement of the Providence *Journal*, that the "law is having absolutely no effect on the liquor traffic save to drive it into places from which it had hitherto been excluded, and into the hands of irresponsible persons of the most dangerous sort. The business has now penetrated into the tenement-houses of the cities and factory villages, thus bringing a terribly demoralizing influence to the homes of that class of people who can least withstand it." There can be no doubt of the truth of this statement, for the official reports admit it, and it is confirmed by the last annual report of the Newport Charity Organization Society. A sad effect of any law could scarcely be imagined, and it seems incredible that a knowledge of it should not merely prevail in Rhode Island, but should be stated in official documents without a word of excuse or protest.

What are the reasons for this failure in Rhode Island, as compared with the success in Cambridge? The first and greatest reason is that, Rhode Island being a State, the influence of politics has been brought to bear on the question. In Cambridge good citizens of all parties united in demanding and sustaining the enforcement of the law. In Rhode Island nothing of the kind has been done. In fact, from the outset the Republicans, who made a party question of the adoption of the law, have used it and the machinery for its operation solely for the benefit of politics. They selected for their first Chief of State Police their ex-Boss Brayton, who, as Postmaster of Providence, had been a Government defaulter for \$30,000. He at once showed his party the possibilities for gain that there were in the law. He did nothing to secure its enforcement, but he was quick to make it a basis for campaign assessments upon the liquor-dealers of the State. It is notorious now that nearly or quite every liquor-dealer pays to the Republican fund an assessment as a condition of continuing his business without molestation.

It is this political aspect of prohibition which we wish to dwell upon most earnestly, for it is an aspect which we have reason to believe has profoundly impressed these latter-day leaders of the Republican party, the Quays, Dudleys, and Platts. In the first place, the adoption of a prohibitory law takes away the excuse for a separate Prohibition party, and thus brings back into the Republican ranks thousands of votes

which are greatly needed in all the close States. In the second place, a prohibitory law, once it is on the statute-books, can be used as a sure means for assessment upon every liquor-dealer in the land. If he won't "come down" at a threat of being closed up, he will certainly "come down," and all his fellows with him, at a threat to repeal the law. Thus, instead of paying to the support of the cost of government through license fees, the liquor traffic would pay only to the support of the Republican party. Herein we catch a glimpse of the reason for Boss Quay's sudden zeal for a prohibitory amendment in Pennsylvania, and of the Republican zeal for a similar amendment in Massachusetts. With the "fat" of the protected manufacturers on the one hand, and the tribute from the liquor interests on the other, the Republican party would have abundant sources from which to draw its campaign funds for many years to come.

RECENT STEAMSHIP DEVELOPMENT.

THE depression in railroad business under which we are now suffering has not extended to the world's carrying trade as a whole. Least of all is it felt in the ocean-steam marine, which has fully recovered from the losses of 1885. The ship-building of 1888 is larger than that of any year since 1883, the figures of English shipyards being as follows:

	Tons.
1882.....	1,200,000
1883.....	1,250,000
1884.....	750,000
1885.....	540,420
1886.....	473,675
1887.....	578,668
1888.....	903,687

In some respects the 900,000 tons of 1888 is substantially equal to the 1,200,000 of 1882 or 1883. More than nine-tenths of the new tonnage is now steam, and by far the larger part of it constructed with steel instead of iron. Different types have been developed so as to produce superior efficiency in carrying cargo, while the average speed has been decidedly increased.

In the ocean carrying trade we are in the midst of a series of experiments of which it is as yet impossible to foresee the end. It can only be said in a general way that the present marine development is like that which was seen in our railroad systems ten years ago. A larger and more varied traffic is being handled by new methods. The history of the ocean carrying trade divides itself naturally into three periods, the first ending with the crisis of 1857, the second with that of 1873. In the first of these periods ocean steamships were developed with political rather than commercial objects in view; and a subsidy, or at least a profitable mail contract, was thought necessary for their successful operation. It was under these conditions that the Peninsular and Oriental, the Cunard Line, and the Royal Mail to South America were developed in England; while the brilliant but short-lived experiment with the Collins Line was the most marked result of the same policy in the United States. In the second period it was found that steamship traffic could be developed in such a way as to be

profitable, independently of subsidies. The freedom from the restrictions which such a subsidy necessarily involved was often found to balance the loss of the money itself. Under these conditions steamship lines multiplied and did an increasing business; but it was not a diversified one. Vessels differed from one another in their size, their speed, or their coal consumption, but they ran for the most part in regular lines, and relied on passenger and freight traffic alike. Improvements came but slowly. The fastest passages from New York to Queenstown took about seven days and a half. Some advances had been made in the matter of fuel economy, but the results did not compare with those which have been subsequently realized.

With the crisis of 1873, steamship construction came to an almost complete standstill. Just at the time when the development of new railroad methods was most active, in spite of a commercial crisis, steamship builders were doing little or nothing. The improvement began about 1880. It was the result of a complicated set of causes which it is as yet impossible to analyze fully. The first conspicuous fact was the sudden development of the ocean "tramp." This term is applied to boats which do not run on any regular line, but go wherever they can get a cargo. Such boats were constructed cheaply, and consumed little coal. Wherever a cargo offered, they were able to handle it cheaply. In going from one port to another in search of cargo they used water ballast; that is, they pumped water into the hold of the ship until it lay low enough for the successful operation of the screw, and, on reaching their destination, pumped the water out and took their cargo instead.

For a time the tramps had everything their own way. Unlike their namesakes on land, they did so much work and did it so cheaply as to threaten the regular liners with a loss of employment. There was the same craze for cheap steamboats that there had been for narrow-gauge railroads ten years previous. But a reaction soon set in. It was found that under stress of weather the water-ballast would gradually shift until it got so far to one side as to carry the boat to the bottom. It was also found that the single-deck Mediterranean steamers which were rigged up for this use, were not able to stand the Atlantic storms without serious danger of foundering. Insurance rates soon ran so high as to interfere with the profit of the business. The reaction for a time was ruinous to the owners of such steamers. The tramp is now coming again into favor—but not the old-fashioned, badly constructed tramp; the most successful boats of this kind are those in which economy has been sought, not in the original investment, but in means of operation. Ships like the new freight boats of the White Star Line belong to this class, constructed with the utmost regard to safety, but seeking and securing the greatest economy in their daily operation.

Meantime the attention of the regular lines had been turned towards the improvement of their efficiency. With steamships as with

railroads, this furnished the soundest chance for business development. A steamship, like a railroad, by increasing the solidity of its works and the power of its engines, could increase carrying capacity much faster than it increased fuel consumption or wages paid. A system of construction was then found profitable which at first sight seemed like ruinous waste of capital. The substitution of steel for iron, although not furnishing the main occasion for improvement on the water as it did on the land, was yet an important incident in the change. The subsequent development of triple-expansion engines was of equal service. Beginning with the year 1880, new boats followed one another in rapid succession, each boat in some respects an improvement on its predecessor. The *Alaska* and *Arizona*, the *City of Rome*, the *Servia* and *Aurania*, the *Oregon*, and finally the *Etruria* and *Umbria*, showed an almost uninterrupted increase in size and a still more conspicuous increase in power, the last-named vessels having a horse-power of 14,000, or nearly three times that which was considered available a few years previous. Meantime the German and French lines had come into possession of a set of vessels scarcely inferior in speed to the best English boats, and vastly more economical. The fastest boats of the Continental lines are now distinctly superior in speed to any English boats except the *Etruria* and *Umbria*, while their fuel consumption is hardly more than a third of that of the last-named vessels, and is less than that of many of the slower boats of ten or twelve years ago.

Nor has the development of size and power by any means reached its limit. The use of twin screws, which has for some time been well established in war vessels, is now being applied on a large scale for mercantile purposes. The *City of New York* is the only first-class boat of this kind in the ocean mercantile service; but a companion ship belonging to the same line is practically completed, while the Hamburg Line has four under construction—two of them nearly ready for use. The White Star Line has also two, which it expects to use before the end of the season, that are vastly superior in power to anything hitherto seen. These twin-screw boats have a displacement of upwards of 10,000 tons in every case, and their horse-power varies from 12,000 to 20,000 each.

It is too early to tell what will be the commercial success of enterprises of this kind. The conditions under which they will operate must remain largely a matter of speculation. Under present rates of freight, large and well-constructed steamships, of whatever character, are highly profitable. It seems impossible that this state of things should continue long. A depression in steamship property is apt to be very severe. It should be remembered, however, that the present steamship development is in line with that which has proved permanently successful in other departments of industry. The economy of being able to handle a large business has caused unheard-of reductions in manufacturing prices and in railroad rates. A scale of charges which would have seemed im-

possible twenty years ago has now become practicable in almost every line of business. It is to be hoped that the new methods of steamship construction, affording a chance of doing larger business with fewer hands, and of keeping the invested capital in more rapid and constant use, may be a means of economy to shippers and shipowners alike.

LONDON'S CHINESE PUZZLE.

LONDON, January 25.

A WEEK has now passed since the County Council election was held in London. Its result has been already telegraphed to America; but this last week has been by far the most interesting in the short history of the Local-Government Bill. The development of popular feeling and public opinion on the subject since the election is indeed more noteworthy than the election itself. The excitement which now prevails is almost more extraordinary than the general indifference which continued from the passing of the act until within a few days of the election. Of course, while the bill was still before the House there was excitement enough in certain quarters, notably, as will be remembered, among brewers and saloon-keepers when the question of license and compensation was discussed. In the City, too, there was some little stir when the very existence of the Corporation seemed in danger; and there were rumors abroad that a good deal of the City money was being spent in self-defence. But people whose personal or immediate interests were not threatened, looked on at what was really a revolution in the government with most unaccountable apathy. In the country, instead of realizing the new power put into their hands, the few who have voted have returned to their County Councils the lords of the manor, the country squires, the justices of the peace—in fact, the very men against whose *tyranny*, the Radicals hoped, the act was specially directed. In London this apathy has been scarcely less. It was the boast of one daily that it was the only paper in the metropolis which, for a couple of months before the election, kept its readers informed as to the doings and progress of the candidates. The election returns showed how many of the electors in certain districts looked upon the matter as not worth the trouble of going to the polls. The election-day passed as quietly as if it did not mark a new epoch in the history of the English people.

But, since the election, all this has been changed. Now the excitement is at fever heat. In the newspapers, which may fairly be thought to reflect the public feeling, columns are given to the new County Councillors, even if to find space the reports of the Parnell Commission are crowded into one small corner. Radical papers are, figuratively speaking, at each other's throats, and calling each other worse names than were ever found for Tory rivals, because of a difference in the policy they propose to the new municipal government; the County Council even figures in big letters on their flaring posters at street corners. Before last week it was agreed on all sides that, with the Council, party politics had nothing whatever to do; now that Liberals have gained an unexpected majority, to them the result of the election is a sign of the times, and how to turn it to best advantage has become a burning question of the day. The extreme Radicals exult over the victory of the people and the triumph of Democracy. One paper goes so far as to speak of the "Commune of London."

To most men, remembering Paris, the very word Commune means, at its worst, a reign of

terror and disorder which cannot be said to have begun in London, since the metropolis is more orderly than it was a year ago; at its best, the word suggests a rule of inexperience and fanaticism, and in this sense, it may be, the enthusiastic editor used it with more truth than he intended. Certainly, in looking over the list of County Councillors, one is struck with the number of names of which one has never before heard. It may safely be said that the majority of the men who are to govern London for the next three years are without experience to guide them in their new duties. The best-known names are those of men who, like Augustus Harris, for instance, won their notoriety in other than political fields of action, and to whom a seat in the Council is desirable for very much the same reasons that at home the Postmaster-Generalship is said to seem a prize worth money to John Wanamaker, or else of men who, like Lord Rosebery, were elected chiefly because of their name and title, and not because—at least according to American ideals—they really represent the district from which they have been returned; for what Lord Rosebery, a Scotchman, has to do with the affairs of the very heart of the English capital, only an Englishman could explain. Or again, as in many cases, the most familiar names on the list are those of men who have become notorious through their almost fanatical devotion to one idea or principle. The new Council will have its members who will seek to work out all reforms by teetotalism; its philanthropist who will not understand any scheme of progress which does not begin and end in the East of London; its Socialist—and a famous one, too, John Burns—whose one aim will be to make London what it has just been called, a Commune; and, moreover, it may have its two women who believe in the salvation of the world through the establishment of the political rights of women.

But the principal reason for the excitement is the discovery that this brand-new bill is at best a sort of Chinese puzzle to which Parliament has not supplied the key. Now that the time has come for carrying it into effect, he is a wise man who can tell exactly what it means in all its clauses. The most omniscient editors are not sure they have found the rightful interpretation; the new Councillors themselves are at their wits' ends. There is only too often a humorous vagueness about English laws. No one who heard or read it can forget the discussion—worthy of Gilbert and Sullivan's heroes—over the dynamite explosion on London Bridge a few years ago, when the question arose as to whose duty it was to look into the matter; for if the bomb exploded in the water, then the Thames Conservancy were responsible; if on the bridge, then it came under the jurisdiction of the Metropolitan police; but if in the air, then whose business was it? Or again, what would seem more impossible in a well regulated country than the position of the West-End shopkeepers two years ago, when the mob broke their windows, and for compensation they were referred to an official who had existed but in name for the last two centuries? In such cases, it may be said, there is vagueness either because the law is obsolete or because certain contingencies were not foreseen. With the Local-Government Act, however, there is no excuse of this kind; it was an absolutely new measure of reform, introduced to do away with recognized evils due to the then existing form of local government, or, rather, to the want of it throughout England and Wales. Perhaps the very vagueness of the bill may be considered an excellent example of the result of the present English method of making local

laws, and proof of the urgent need for far more radical measures of home rule than those for which the Irish have so long been fighting. The bill was drawn up by one man, Mr. Ritchie, who has now become famous enough; but who before his name was associated with the Local Government Act, was unknown, it may safely be said, to the English world at large. It was then tinkered at and argued over for long months by Irishmen and Scotchmen, as well as by Englishmen and Welsh, though only the latter were to be affected by it. Finally, after all this tinkering by people who had but a general interest in it, the bill was passed and became the law of the land, only to be proved the biggest problem the people of England and Wales have ever had to work out for themselves.

The first difficulty arises from the fact that upon very many important points the act makes no clear statement, but refers—with modifications that further complicate matters—to the Municipal Corporations Act of 1882. On turning to this act, it is found that even here there is no intelligent explanation, but instead another reference to an earlier bill, say of 1854, and even from this you are referred to a still more remote act, until, as one of the new Councillors said to me the other day, by the time you get to the fountain-head of all your references you have entirely forgotten what was the exact subject of inquiry that started you on your search. But this is as nothing compared to the greater difficulty that envelops the question of the election of Aldermen. In this connection a trouble arises which threatens to exhaust the Councillors even before they have begun their active work. It will be sufficient here to speak of the difficulty in London alone, where, after all, the new experiment in municipal government is of paramount interest, since for the first time all the many parishes, villages, and districts into which London has hitherto been divided are consolidated into one great whole. Here nineteen Aldermen are to be elected by the County Councillors; so far the act is clear. But how they are to be selected is a point upon which it is no less vague than if this election had been as unforeseen as the explosion of the bomb on London Bridge. A man who is qualified to be a Councillor is qualified to be an Alderman, it says; and, in a parenthesis, as it were, I might add that to make out the exact qualifications of a Councillor means a ramble of some length through more than one Blue Book. This, of course, the Councillors are supposed to know, but their knowledge is little help to them, for they have at once to decide if they are to select the Aldermen from outside or inside the Council. If they choose the latter alternative, in nineteen constituencies the arduous work of canvassing must recommence, another election must be gone through, and, more important still, there is the risk of several seats being lost by the Liberals, who are not anxious to sacrifice the majority they have just gained. It may be said that the elections have tested the Liberal strength of these constituencies, and that therefore no risk is run. But the Liberals cannot afford to be too sure. In many districts the number of voters was small, though it is not in every case possible to tell whether this smallness was due to actual indifference or to the unreliability of the registration list. In Stepney, for example, the names of 1,000 people no longer living there were still on the list, so that the votes seemed fewer than they really were. But, however this may be, there is no doubt that throughout London interest has only just been aroused in the Council, and consequently a new victory would not be won on such easy terms. Already many of the Councillors have declined to be nominated for Alder-

men, because they knew their constituencies would seriously object to it.

On the other hand, there is a widespread feeling that these very important positions should not be given to men who have not, by a direct appeal through the ballot-box, proved that they possess the confidence of the people, or who, by failure in the late election, have shown conclusively that they do not possess it. The election, indeed, has been a very good test, since almost all those Londoners who would be willing to accept the position of Alderman have already figured among the candidates for the County Council. This question is exceedingly difficult to answer; but even here the difficulty does not cease. Of the Aldermen who are now elected, ten will remain in office for six years; nine for three years; but, until the nineteen have been duly elected, votes cannot be given for those who are to enjoy the long term. The consequence is that many busy men who might otherwise consent to be at least nominated, now refuse because of this uncertainty; they must be sure beforehand of the exact conditions of time of the work they are now undertaking. That the Councillors, who have anything but an easy task before them, should have been placed in such a dilemma at the very outset, is simply unpardonable. In the country the matter has been decided in many different ways; in some counties all the Aldermen have been taken from outside, in others from inside the Council; in a few a compromise has been made, and this is probably what will be done in London. The chances are that nine Councillors and ten men from outside their body will be chosen. The report of the election may reach New York before this letter, but its full significance cannot be realized unless something is known of the difficulties which preceded it.

The next complication has been caused by the election of the two women. Here also the act is vague. As far as the average man can find out, it says nothing to prove positively that women are not qualified to be Councillors; but, again, it says nothing to prove that they are. Because of this vagueness, an admirable opportunity seemed to present itself at the late elections to test woman's political rights. Very much to the perplexity of their electors and political supporters, Miss Cobden and Lady Sandhurst were returned. The one merit upon which they both stood was their sex; beyond this, their only recommendations were, in Miss Cobden's case, her father's name and a very striking face; in Lady's Sandhurst's, the friendship of Mrs. Gladstone and the power of healing by the laying on of hands. But their competency was not for a moment considered. Already Mr. Beresford-Hope, a defeated candidate in Brixton, the district which returned Lady Sandhurst, has declared his intention of lodging an objection against her eligibility. If he gains his suit, another delicate question will have to be answered by Miss Cobden and her friends, even if her right to a seat in the Council is not directly contested. Should she, after her splendid victory, resign, or should she remain in the Council, liable as she would be by a provision of the act—if Lady Sandhurst's case proves that a woman is not qualified to be a Councillor—to a fine of £50 every time she voted? It is not likely that the most enthusiastic Woman's League or Association would accept the responsibility of such an expensive triumph; and, while I know nothing of Miss Cobden's private means, I am quite certain that the wealthiest would find £50 a vote a very heavy tax.

There is another point which is being disputed by the Councillors, though the public has heard comparatively little about it, and which

will probably, like the woman question, have to be carried into the courts. From the wording of the ingenious bill it cannot be decided whether the County Councillors for London are to elect a chairman who need not be a Councillor and who is to be paid, a Vice-Chairman who must be a Councillor and is not to be paid, and in addition to these two officers, a Deputy-Chairman who is to be paid—Councillors and Aldermen, of course, are not to receive pay; in a word, no one in London can tell you to how many chairmen the County Council is entitled. Neither can any one yet say where the new Councillors are to meet; they are at present as much adrift as the poor Socialists who wander about with their red flag from one open space to another.

That all these difficulties have to be surmounted, all these questions satisfactorily and legally answered before any other work can be undertaken, is a serious drawback to a body of men from whom much is expected. The worst of it is, that when these preliminary matters are found to be in such a muddle, one cannot but look for a new crop of difficulties and questions to spring up as soon as the Council meets in April. Instead of the much-hoped-for immediate improvement in the Board of Works, there will be for an interval but confusion and dissensions in the new municipal government. Before order and peace have been restored on the surface there will have been time for many to discover, as the *Spectator* at least has already discovered, what a city London is to plunder! The old Board of Works was so rotten that even the City Corporation would have nothing to do with it; the honesty of the new Council has yet to be proved. One thing seems certain: the Councillors who are for plunder all inclined, will find the opportunities made to their hand, for the modern Englishman, despite the scandals in the Board of Works, in the Admiralty, in the War Office, has a firm belief that the politician can do no wrong. Altogether, some of our American wire-pullers and "bosses" who are out of work at home, might do worse than to look in on the London County Council. In three years, with another election, they might even have a chance to pull the wires from the inside, for if Scotchmen can be elected, why not Americans? And probably before it could be decided whether they had a right to be there, with their usual smartness they could have made off with a goodly share of the plunder. Certainly Buffalo Bill, with his big hat, or Mr. Blaine, with his peculiar record, would have a fair chance in Belgravia or Bayswater, for there is nothing which rouses the Englishman's enthusiasm so much as notoriety, especially if it be of American origin and doubtful quality. At all events, now is the moment for the Irish-American to come back to the mother country and claim his own and take somebody else's.

Correspondence.

GOVERNMENT AND RAILROADS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Two pieces of reading coming together have furnished me with a new text for the eternal lesson which I am trying to enforce. One is a pamphlet published, in reply to the inquiries of numerous alarmed stockholders, by John M. Forbes, who has been identified with the management of the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad from the start, and C. E. Perkins, the actual President of that road. I believe there is no road in the country more

skilfully, and I am sure there is none more honestly, managed than the C., B. and Q. The taste and temper of the pamphlet leave nothing to be desired, but I am at present concerned with only one feature of it. Mr. Forbes says: "The chief danger of railroads to-day (an artificial and unnecessary one) is from unwise and artificial legislation by Congress and State Governments"; and Mr. Perkins, after setting forth the difficulties which railroads have to contend with, says in plain terms that one of the greatest is the unwise and impractical character of the Inter-State Commerce Law.

I place this pamphlet alongside of the wonderful book of Mr. James Bryce, which I am tempted to say is the most valuable political work published in this country in this century. In analyzing successively the Federal, State, and municipal governments he shows that they are all conducted on the same plan, with entire absence of executive leadership and responsibility—or indeed of any kind—all power being in the hands of numerous committees, secret, irresponsible, jarring, and constantly dissolving and reforming anew, upon every kind of consideration except the public interest. And after each description comes the same refrain: "A European is led to ask, How can such a government be made to work at all?" And then he goes into a somewhat elaborate statement of reasons why it does work better than might be expected. The fact is, it does not work at all. The condition of our legislation and, therefore, in an increasing degree, of administration, may be described as anarchy tempered by local self-government and the conservatism and law-abiding habits of the people.

While this anarchy is undermining many interests, in none are its effects more potent and glaring than the railroad system. If the great railroads do not wish to be carried down by this anarchy into utter chaos, this is the point to which they will have to direct their efforts. If the Union Pacific wishes to get a settlement of its debt relation to the Government, if the Northern Pacific wishes to get its land grant on a stable basis, if all the railroads wish to get a basis of combination by which, like men walking on slippery ice, they can stand by holding each other up, they have got to give up lobbying with committees as a broken reed and a hopeless resource, and set themselves to procuring the establishment of some efficient and responsible authority to which they can appeal. The case might be definitely stated thus:

"What we require is an agent known to be impartial, and occupying a position of commanding influence, who will examine into and formulate our wants in a shape consistent with the public interest; an agent who shall prepare and bring forward at the opening of the next session of Congress a measure embodying these wants, not to be thrust at once into a committee, to take its chance with some thousands of other measures in forty other committees, but to be taken up and discussed by Congress as a body, and back of that by the press of the country; an agent who, by the full weight of official and personal influence, shall hold the discussion to that particular measure, and exert himself, with the aid of independent supporters, to force it through, and who, existing by virtue of his office (as it was said, "The King of France never dies"), would be always ready to carry it on to amendment and greater perfection."

Such an agent is ready to their hands in the Secretary of the Interior, and the mode of operation is fully indicated in the report of February 4, 1887, signed by eight Senators of both

parties. Of one thing the railroads can be certain, that if anything can save them, this will; and if this will not save them, nothing can.

G. B.

Boston, February 11, 1889.

THE FARMERS AND THE PRESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Jessup's comments in the *Nation* of January 31, on Mr. Whittlesey's suggestions as to ways of reaching the farming population, underestimate the difficulty of influencing them—in Michigan at least. So far as its circulation goes, all the tariff-reform articles that could be written would not do away with the pernicious hypocrisy of the New York *Independent*. No ignorant Catholic ever accepted more seriously the teaching of his priest than very many moral and religious people accept and believe the sophistry of the "amusing old moralist" of the *Independent*. The *Advance* of Chicago is but little if any better. So much for the religious press.

As to the secular press, about every local Republican paper in the State is under a 'protectionist censorship, that renders it next to impossible to procure the insertion of an article that in any degree argues against the most extreme idea of protection. So long as Alger, Blodgett, McMillan, and Stockbridge control the Republican party in Michigan, any hope of teaching our farmers correct tariff ideas through the medium of local Republican papers is idle. There are, of course, many of our local papers that I do not see, but I know of but one Republican paper in the State, the *Coldwater Republican*, that will tolerate in its columns any editorial or correspondence that advocates any concession whatever from the most ultra theory of protection. Serious boycotts are not infrequent against papers in small towns that show the least tendency favoring a lowering of tariff rates. Perhaps a fair idea of the ignorance and intolerance of the Republican farmers of Eaton County may be obtained when we consider that, so far as they understand it, they *en masse* approve of the tariff bill recently passed by the Senate.—Respectfully yours,

H. J. MARTIN.

VERMONTVILLE, MICH., February 4, 1889.

NEWSPAPER INACCURACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Newspapers, by seizing, as they often do, with uncritical and unscholarly avidity, upon anything that will answer for copy to fill out a page or a column, are the great disseminators of error. Hitherto, so far as I am aware, no one has undertaken to gauge this inaccuracy, and to show just what percentage of error we may expect the average newspaper item to contain. A few days ago, however, Prof. William Hoover, of the Ohio University, found, in the Cincinnati *Times-Star* for January 18, a series of items under the caption "Friday for Luck," that seemed especially amenable to a test. Dates were assigned to a number of notable events that were said to have taken place on Friday. Not willing to believe and take for granted, Dr. Hoover examined and carefully verified the dates. He found that out of nineteen of these events, one fell on Sunday, three on Monday, four on Tuesday, two on Wednesday, one on Thursday, and only six on Friday. In reference to the main statement, that the events fell on Friday, there was thus less than 32 per cent. of accuracy, while, as two of these events were assigned to the wrong month and day of the month, the percentage of accuracy

should really be put down to very nearly 21 per cent. From this computation alone it would appear that of what we see in newspapers we might believe one-fifth, if we only knew beforehand which was the credible fifth.

Since many of our teachers, both secular and religious, and even some widely quoted book-makers like Samuel Smiles and William Matthews, depend upon such sources for their facts, it is of the utmost importance to eliminate these errors by exposing them and putting people on their guard against them. The average man, on whom we depend for the future success of our democratic institutions, will never think correctly, and hence never make a good citizen, until he knows something of the truth, until he has some correct data on which to base his reasoning.

In this matter of the day of the week, however—a matter so easily verified by simply allowing for the difference between old and new style—it is only fair to add that newspapers are not the only culprits. No less a person than our own Washington Irving says that it was Sunday, the 25th of September, 1492, on which arose that marvellous swelling of the sea, without wind, which Columbus records as a special interposition of Providence "to allay the rising clamors of his crew." But unfortunately for Irving's accuracy, the 25th of September fell on Wednesday. Errors like this are trifles in the case of such a literary artist, though trifles make or mar perfection; in the case of the newspaper, however, they are the straws that show the direction of the current.

EDWARD P. ANDERSON.

OHIO UNIVERSITY, February 4, 1889.

EXCESSIVE CHARGES FOR TRANSPORTATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a late number you maintain strongly that it is the duty of persons suffering from overcharges, insolence, and other forms of oppression to "kick." You urge that the oppressor argues from our American charity, "bearing all things" with silent fortitude, that we, the people, rather like it; and you insist that a part of our debt to society is invariably, systematically, quickly, continuously, and powerfully "to kick."

I bought from a prominent New York house a roll of floor matting for \$10. The Southern Express Company charged me \$4.15 to carry it to Pensacola, or nearly 6 cents a pound. When I complained, the company said that was their usual charge.

I bought in Rochester, N. Y., twenty-six ounces of tobacco. The same company charged me 65 cents to carry it to Pensacola, or 2½ cents an ounce.

I had a box of books weighing 150 pounds sent from Springfield, Mo. Charge to Pensacola \$11.20, or 7½ cents a pound.

A railroad is a highway, therefore robbery on a railroad is highway robbery. Blackstone defines robbery to be a taking from the person by violence or putting in fear. The money came from my pocket, and I am afraid. I am so badly scared that hereafter my ounces will come by mail and my pounds by freight. If people will generally avoid giving business to the express company combination, they will find that the cost of transportation will fall.

ST. ANDREW'S BAY, FLA., January 31, 1889.

PHILOSOPHICAL ACUMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of November 22, 1888, a correspondent gave a striking illustration of

the "want of philosophical acumen" on the part of Lord Lytton in his 'Last Days of Pompeii' (Book ii, chap. 4) with regard to Italy's "blind policy" of unification; and he referred at the same time to the quotation by another correspondent in the *Nation* of May 24, 1888, of a passage in a speech by Lord Macaulay in 1845, which contained a prophecy that the black population of Brazil would be freed before that of the United States.

It is refreshing to find occasionally an instance of genuine "philosophical acumen" in writers neither "novelists nor historians," and far removed from the world of practical politics.

In Jacob Grimm's 'Kleinere Schriften' (vol. i, Berlin, 1864), in a lecture delivered before the Berlin Academie der Wissenschaften, December 5, 1844, "Italienische und Scandinavische Eindrücke," he says, page 78, of Italy:

"Was auch kommender Zeiten Schoss in sich berge, die Macht, deren Flamme wir noch auf-flackern sehn, wird nicht ewig über ihm lasten; und wenn Friede und Heil des ganzen Welt-theils auf Deutschlands Starke und Freiheit beruhen, so muss sogar diese durch eine in den Knoten der Politik noch nicht abzusehende, aber dennoch mögliche Wiederherstellung Italiens bedingt erscheinen."

J. H. SENER.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, January 26, 1889.

THE SPURIOUS SHELLEY LETTERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Such, as you are aware, is the designation generally given to a collection of twenty-five letters published, in 1852, by Mr. Robert Browning, with an "Introductory Essay" which assumes their genuineness. Having no access to anything that has been written on the subject of those letters, I am, however, quite uninformed as to what portion of them, if any, adjudicated from Shelley, has been traced to its real author or authors. It may be, therefore, that I have been forestalled in what I am about to show, and it would, indeed, be somewhat strange if the case were otherwise. Should you know that I am retelling an old tale, what I now write is, of course, to be considered as unwritten.

Letter iv., occupying pp. 59-63, is, with the exception of its postscript, to be found in vol. xlviii., pp. 491, 492, of the *Monthly Magazine* (1819). In pp. 59 and 61, parts of the magazine article are omitted.

In Letter xiv., all from the first paragraph in p. 104 to the end of p. 106 is taken from the same periodical, vol. xlv., p. 112 (1818).

The end of Letter xvii., from "It would be" to "political expedience," pp. 127, 128, is also abstracted from vol. xlv., p. 214.

All the plagiarized passages mentioned above are transcribed literally from the 'Physico-moral and Political Illustrations and Apophthegms; written in the year 1797,' by John Lawrence. Quite possibly a close examination of these Illustrations and Apophthegms, of which I may not have seen the whole, would lead to discoveries additional to those which have been indicated.

Of John Lawrence, an intrepid logician and vigorous writer, some account was furnished by himself, in 1818, as a prefatory note to his speculations contributed to the *Monthly Magazine*. From that account, mainly, I take what here follows.

The time of his birth, which he does not specify, must have been not long before the middle of the last century; since he states that his first literary efforts, poetical, were made between 1767 and 1770. We are not informed whether he put in print any of what he calls

his "heroics and madrigals." He goes on to say: "During the years 1774 and 1775, I was so situated as to have access to a very extensive American correspondence; and I afterwards wrote, occasionally, on that unfortunate international dispute which, nevertheless, ended fortunately for both nations." Between 1784 and 1795 he published, without his name, various tracts and treatises, political and miscellaneous. Veterinary science and agriculture subsequently engaged his attention, as five octavo volumes and one quarto, besides sundry pamphlets, bear ample witness. Then followed two anonymous volumes which he does not characterize. Of his contributions to the periodical press he speaks as if they may have been of considerable extent.

The work by which Lawrence is best known is his quarto on the horse, which came out in 1809.

In 1818, and several years later, he was living in Somers Town, a quarter of London. Further particulars about him I have no present means of ascertaining.

As regards his very unconventional opinions, theological and political, there are few of them in which Shelley would not have heartily acquiesced.

Your obedient servant,

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, January 26, 1889.

Notes.

PROF. J. J. REIN'S 'Industries of Japan,' a work inspired and supported by the Prussian Government, has been translated with the author's coöperation, and will shortly be published by A. C. Armstrong & Son. The work has regard to the agriculture, mining, forestry, arts, and commerce of Japan.

'Home Gymnastics for the Well and the Sick,' from the German of Angerstein and Eckler; 'A Quaker Girl of Nantucket,' by Mary Catherine Lea; 'The Immanent God, and Other Sermons,' by the Rev. A. W. Jackson; and 'The American Book of Church Services,' by the Rev. Edward Hungerford, are the newest announcements of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The same firm will at an early date publish in four volumes the works of the late Rowland G. Hazard of Providence, edited by his granddaughter, Miss Caroline Hazard.

Brentano will shortly issue 'The Romance of an Alter Ego,' by Gen. Lloyd Brice; 'Frederick Struther's Romance,' by Albert Ullmann; 'The Seldens in Chicago: a Domestic Tale'; and 'Where the Trout Hide,' by Kit Clarke.

'Gertrude's Marriage,' from the German of W. Heimbürg, is in the press of Worthington Co.

Dr. Georg Brandes was invited two winters ago to give a course of lectures in French at St. Petersburg and Moscow. On his return, he published a volume of 'Impressions' of life and literature in Russia. With the author's approval and personal supervision, Mr. Samuel C. Eastman of Concord, N. H., has translated this volume into English, and it will be published shortly by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Mr. Ivan Panin, Wellesley, Mass., will print his lectures on Russian Literature delivered before the Lowell Institute, Boston, in a style uniform with his translations from Pushkin, as soon as he procures enough subscribers at \$2 per volume. Names should be sent to the above address before April 1.

Bromfield & Co. will henceforth be the publishers of the Family Biography of Henry Ward Beecher, and will undertake to complete his 'Life of Christ.'

Cupples & Hurd, Boston, announce as in pre-

paration six Adirondack tales in as many volumes, emulating Cooper's Leatherstocking series, by W. H. H. Murray.

Peter Paul & Bro., Buffalo, publish immediately 'The Champions of Agrarian Socialism, and their Teaching,' from the German of the Rev. V. Cathrein, S. J.

There is no good reason for the existence of 'The Story of Thomas Carlyle,' by A. S. Arnold (Scribner & Welford). In his preface the author says: "Intense sympathy and admiration is my excuse for my presumption in dealing with so great a hero." We fear his "grim" hero would have been the last to accept such an excuse for such a book, not one-third of which justifies its title. The leading events of Carlyle's life are told fairly enough, though with a sad lack of order and perspective. But two-thirds of the 371 pages are made up of indiscriminating panegyric, much tiresome moralizing, and much futile literary criticism. The style is of the exclamatory, or the interrogative-exclamatory, order, and the English is neither elegant nor accurate.

'In Pursuit of a Shadow' is the attractive title of a small volume in which a "lady astronomer" describes the experiences of herself and a friend during their trip from England to Russia to observe the solar eclipse of 1887. There is nothing distinctively astronomical in their journey from Hull to Christiania, thence to Stockholm, St. Petersburg, and Moscow; but in spite of rather long sentences and a style slightly involved, the story is pleasantly told, with an agreeable touch of humor now and then. At Pogost the party awaited the eclipse, enshrouded to them, as it was to most of the other expectant observers, in clouds and disappointment. The closing chapter, chiefly upon Nizhni-Novgorod and Smolensk, brings them safely back to English soil at Dover. The volume is published in London by Trübner & Co.

'Cram's Standard American Atlas of the World' for 1889 comes to us from Wm. M. Goldthwaite, 19 Park Place. It is of a class of business atlases which do not recommend themselves by cartographical excellence, but which attain their end if (in the case of the United States), with a reasonable regard for geographic accuracy, they display clearly the greatest number of towns and railroad stations, the railroads themselves, the respective express lines, the county divisions, etc. For ready reference, a State index exhibits for each town the location on the map, population, railway, number of banks, and postal and money-order offices. This Atlas seems to us as good as any that we have examined.

A monograph upon the 'Fragments of Heraclitus,' by Dr. G. T. W. Patrick, published under the auspices of the Johns Hopkins University, is a fresh illustration of the encouragement which that institution gives to scholarly work.

Last year we were struck at first glance with the quality of 'Longmans' School Grammar,' by David Salmon, as being superior to any work of the kind we had ever met with. Since then this text-book has found its way into practical use in our schools, and has proved to be what we suspected on the face of it. We are glad to receive now from the Messrs. Longman a 'Junior Grammar' by the same author, in pursuit of the same scheme, and serving as an introduction to the larger work. We commend it heartily to the attention of teachers. Think of the old-style grammar beginning with a solemn definition of Grammar, and then judge of Mr. Salmon's method from his opening words: "(Nouns.) In the following sentences pick out all names of persons."

Shakspeare's "Cymbeline," Jeremy Taylor's

'Holy Living,' more of Plutarch's Lives, Dryden's Discourses on Satire and on Epic Poetry, and 'The Amber Witch,' are the latest of the little volumes, richly freighted, which compose "Casell's National Library."

We have had for some time on our table the first volume of the Final Report of the State Geologist of New Jersey. The survey of the State was ordered in 1864, and at the end of a quarter of a century the work is done. The great Atlas of New Jersey is the first achievement of its kind in the history of the republic—a splendid product of Federal and State collaboration. Two maps based upon it accompany the present volume—one civil and one topographical. The topics treated are Topography, Magnetism, and Climate, and a very large part of the text is readable and extremely interesting. Historical and antiquarian research has been so freely employed that the classification of the Report in any library or catalogue should be at least two-fold. We cannot give any adequate idea of the exhaustive contents under the above headings. It appears that boundary disputes between New Jersey and two of her neighbors, Delaware and New York, still exist. The copious illustrations of the climate for two and a half centuries do not show a secular change such as is often alleged. The geologic conditions appear to affect the magnetic declination. They have a direct and important influence upon vegetation and cultivation and population, as well as upon temperature—though the Report records in silence Peter Kalm's observations in the middle of the last century concerning the connection between cold nights in spring and summer and the occurrence of limestone. More than 600,000 inhabitants of New Jersey live within eighteen miles of the New York City Hall.

The Bureau of Education has added to its series of circulars edited by Dr. Herbert B. Adams—of which No. 1 dealt with the College of William and Mary, the second with Thomas Jefferson and the University of Virginia (and also with the other leading colleges of the same State)—a 'History of Education in North Carolina,' by Charles Lee Smith. Like the foregoing, it is fully illustrated. This series is well calculated to stimulate the South to renewed efforts in behalf of education, and to inspire the North with respect for the institutions already established.

The second issue of the *University Studies* of the University of Nebraska will most attract the ordinary reader by reason of Mr. L. A. Sherman's "Observations upon the Sentence-length in English Prose," an essay towards the discovery of the relation between mathematics and rhetoric, with a view to determining the laws of the latter. "Three hundred sentences," says Mr. Sherman, "will generally reveal the sentence-rhythm of any writer who has achieved a style."

Under the title, 'Fra Monache e Letterati: Contributo alla Storia dei Plagi,' Corrado Ricci tells in a diverting way of an unblushing appropriation of his labors among the archives of Ravenna by a Frenchman, one H. Gagnière (suggestive name), in his 'Confessions d'une abbesse du XIVe siècle.' The exposure is complete and crushing, but we can do no more than put the offender's name in the pillory as a pretender and a thief.

The catalogue of the Codici Palatini in the National Central Library of Florence has just completed its first volume. An index of authors and popularizers needs still another fascicle to complete it and to provide a preface for the volume.

Among the "Indici e Cataloghi" issuing from the Italian Ministry of Public Instruc-

tion is an 'Indice del Mare Magnum di Francesco Marucelli,' by Prof. Guido Biagi, librarian of the Florentine Marucelliana. Who this founder of a library dedicated "publicae, maxime pauperum, utilitati" was, Biagi tells in a few words, which were needed, seeing how little fame has done for the generous scholar, littérateur, and bibliographer, and how much he himself did to obliterate well-deserved praises. He died in Rome in 1703, at the age of seventy-eight, bequeathing his collection of books to Florence. His 'Mare Magnum' was a great scholarly commonplace book, with exact reference to the works in which each topic is discussed or illustrated. In its present shape it fills 111 volumes, and Prof. Biagi explains the obstacles to its being printed by Marucelli's heirs, in accordance with their intention. The present key to it takes it up volume by volume, printing the class heading and the topics in alphabetical order, and summing up the whole in one index. Biagi promises great and curious instruction to those who make use of it to explore the original work.

The last supplemental number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* contains the first part of Dr. Junker's account of his explorations in Central Africa. This treats of the hydrography, orography, and ethnography of the Welle-Makua region. It is accompanied by the southern portions of the large map, made on a scale of 1:750,000, by Dr. B. Hassenstein after Dr. Junker's observations. The southeastern part includes the western portion of Emin Pasha's province, showing the region—left mostly in blank, however—through which Stanley in all probability passed. The parts which show Dr. Junker's journeyings are a striking testimony to the extent and importance of his discoveries.

Turner demands fresh consideration, in one branch of his art, in Mr. Cosmo Monkhouse's twelfth paper on the "Early English Water-color Painters" in the December *Portfolio* (Macmillan). The copy of his sepia sketch of a pilot-boat would dispense with any text; and there is given, besides, his view of Rome from Monte Mario, and his Newcastle-on-Tyne. In the January number Laurens's Mounet-Sully as *Hamlet* is etched effectively by Mlle. Poynot. Mr. Hamerton bestows what seems to us the artist's full meed of praise on M. Habert-Dys, whose decorative work abounds in *L'Art*, his patron. Mr. Hamerton praises the latter journal for its early perception of the talent of M. Renouard, now so familiar both in England and here.

Reviews of illustrated books, or what it calls "Notre Bibliothèque," agreeably diversify the closing numbers of *L'Art* (Macmillan) for 1888, and the first number of the new year (Nos. 588-591). M. Habert-Dys is seen at his best in the ornamental border in No. 589. A noticeable *eau-forte* by Mlle. Teyssonières translates one of Julien Dupré's canvases, "The Gleaner." Striking, too, is the drawing of the front of the Duomo of Orvieto, by Lucien Hirtz. Among the leading articles we can mention only that on Liotard, the Swiss pastellist and miniaturist of the latter part of the eighteenth century, an amusing adventurer in many lands. His "Pretty Chocolate Girl," of the Dresden Museum, has done more for his immortality than all his portraits of greater celebrities. M. Henry de Chennevières writes very entertainingly about him.

The People's Cause, a journal of tariff reform, ballot reform, and civil-service reform, has just begun to be issued monthly at 330 Pearl St., with Mr. R. R. Bowker for its directing spirit. From the same establishment it is announced that 'The Cleveland Album: a Memorial of Four Years' Democratic Adminis-

tration,' will be issued, with photo-engraved likenesses of President and Mrs. Cleveland, heads of departments, Speaker Carlisle, and other prominent supporters of the Government now on the verge of dissolution.

We are asked to announce that the following meetings will be held in Paris in connection with the great exposition during the coming summer, viz.: (1) Congress of Geography etc., August 5-12; (2) Association Française, 8-15; (3) Congrès d'Anthropologie, 19-26.

—The lawless and irrational character of English orthography has given rise not only to the spelling-reform movement, which is aimed at the root of the trouble, but also to more than one attempt at reform in the methods of introducing children to the art of reading and spelling under the existing orthographic régime. One well-known method, which finds great favor among some at least of the leading authorities in pedagogy, consists in teaching the child to recognize a word as a whole, without reference to its component letters. In the February number of *Babyhood* Mr. Louis Heilprin proposes "A Reformed Primer," the idea of which is the exact opposite of the method just described. He thinks that by careful selection of such words as are spelt phonetically, the pupil might easily learn the art of reading, in its essential character; and he shows that even with our unfortunate orthography we have a large stock of words suitable for this purpose. He would begin with words in which the successive enunciation of the names of the letters is almost equivalent to the pronunciation of the word; such words as *fox*, *find*. He would then introduce words which do not enjoy this advantage, but which are, nevertheless, phonetically written; and afterwards, step by step, introduce the more regular and systematic variations from phonetic representation. The idea is worked out in considerable detail; the acute remarks and well-chosen illustrations make the discussion of a subject which one would expect to find tedious, decidedly interesting. We think Mr. Heilprin has gone far towards making out a case for the advantages of the scheme he proposes, and that his article is well worth the attention of those interested in this branch of pedagogy.

—The number of pamphlets on railroad matters is large. One of the most practical among them is a description of the English railway clearing-house, by Edward McDermott, F.S.S., originally published by the *Railway News* of London, and reprinted by H. V. & H. W. Poor. This organization, which has been described in the *Evening Post* through a letter from Mr. McDermott himself, is a wonderful product of English administrative skill. Originating on a small scale at the beginning of 1842, it gradually extended itself over the whole country, and has proved most useful in every respect. It gives shippers of goods and parcels a responsible authority with which to deal, instead of allowing their complaints to be shifted from one company to the other, as is too often the case here. To the railroads themselves it furnishes a means of economy, by allowing settlements through balances and book accounts instead of direct cash payments. As a means of maintaining rates its importance is perhaps exaggerated. During a large part of the time when the clearing-house was in active and successful operation, rate wars were by no means unknown, and when they were finally stopped it was by consolidation or pooling rather than by the action of the clearing-house itself. We also note that Mr. McDermott is in error in some of his more general statements not directly connected with the operation of the clearing-

house—for instance, where he says that it may be assumed approximately that the average distance travelled by each passenger on the railways of the United Kingdom is seventeen miles. This figure is much too large, although, in the absence of detailed statistics, it is impossible to say exactly what it ought to be.

—Most of the other pamphlets deal with the reasons for the unsatisfactory financial condition of American railroads to-day. Mr. Henry Wood of Boston, author of 'Natural Law in the Business World,' gives a plea for the "Long-Suffering Shareholder," against the abuses of Directors on the one hand and Commissioners on the other. The same general subject is treated by Daniel S. Remsen, in an able paper read before the State Bar Association, on "The Security of Railway Investments." The chief merit of Mr. Remsen's paper is its clear recognition of the fact that abuses must be met by prevention rather than by direct remedy. The railroad laws of most States are of such a character as to give every opportunity for abuses. It is by change in the laws which shall give greater safeguards to the investor that we must seek reformation, rather than by directing our attacks against the directors themselves. Mr. Charles Blair is so impressed by the inadequacy of State laws that he goes one step further, and offers a series of suggestions for the incorporation of railroads under the direct authority of the United States rather than by State charters. On the other hand, Joseph Nimmo, jr., long at the head of the Bureau of Statistics of the Interior Department, in a paper on "Cost of Transportation and Freight Charges," pleads strongly for less interference instead of more; his underlying thought being that the rate-maker has no power arbitrarily to determine rates, but is dealing with forces beyond his control. The proper function of the Inter-State Commerce Commission is to see that, in the exercise of this limited authority, he does not make unjust discriminations. We fear, however, that the tendency of the times is towards more legislation rather than less.

—In the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* for December, C. F. Müller publishes the memorial presented by him in 1886 to the Prussian Minister of Instruction, embodying a plan for the preparation of a general catalogue of all the *Programm-abhandlungen* issued by the higher schools of Germany. The Minister seems to have been of the opinion that were such a work desirable it might very well be undertaken by some publishing firm without Government aid, but no publisher has yet been found willing to take the risk. The author of the plan now submits it to the criticism of those interested, in the hope of receiving their support in getting it carried out. It appears that from 1824 to 1875 it was required by law in Prussia, and in most of the German States as well, that the annual school programme should be accompanied by a scientific or learned dissertation; and though since 1875 this supplement is no longer obligatory, it is still customary. The annual cost of these *Programm-abhandlungen* in Prussia alone is estimated to be at the present time about thirty-six thousand dollars. This mass of material, thus issued at so great an expense—the number of these programmes published since 1824 cannot be less than thirty thousand—lies buried and forgotten in the recesses of great libraries. Practically, it is inaccessible to ordinary students, for though several catalogues exist of the programmes issued during particular periods, or in certain States, these catalogues are not only incomplete and inaccurate, but for the most part have themselves been published

only in the form of *Programm-abhandlungen*, and have shared the fate of their kind. To catalogue properly even the current issues of these programmes is a burdensome task to libraries which receive them, for probably no other class of works offers so many difficulties to the cataloguer, while the time spent upon them is, in most cases, out of all proportion to their literary or scientific value. Certainly most American librarians would consider themselves fully justified were they to deal with them as Mr. Dewey does with his pamphlets—that is, mark each one with a class number denoting its subject, pile them away on the shelves with the books on similar subjects, and allow them to be their own catalogue. At any rate, it is doubtful whether, for the sake of the few grains of wheat possibly hidden in bushels of chaff, it be worth while to drag from their dusty restingplaces, classify, and catalogue this host of perfunctory productions. Dr. Müller, however, thinks otherwise, and proposes a coöperative plan according to which each institution shall be required to prepare and send to the Minister of Instruction a complete catalogue of all its programmes; these separate catalogues are then to be combined by a competent editor in a general classified catalogue. To carry out such a plan it is evident that Government aid and influence are necessary; whether they will be forthcoming seems doubtful.

—The articles in the January number of the *Centralblatt* have mainly an antiquarian interest. Thus we are given the first instalment of an elaborate paper on the manuscripts and editions of the pseudo-Aristotelian treatise "Secretum secretorum"; an enumeration of the early editions of the Psalter which contain a German version; a full collation of a German codex now in the Salzburg library; and a brief statement of facts concerning the lost "Memoria" of Velasquez, which Adolf de Castro asserts that he discovered in printed form in 1871, with reasons for doubting Castro's discovery. In the department of library news a large space is given to recent reports of American libraries.

—A week or two before the late election in Paris, there appeared all of a sudden in the streets a great number of hawkers, offering for sale at five centimes a white-covered pamphlet entitled 'Le Brav' Général Barbenzigue.' This proved to be not, as one would naturally think, an attack on Boulanger. It was Freycinet whose caricature embellished the cover of the pamphlet, and he was surrounded by MM. Floquet, Jules Ferry, Clémenceau, and other anti-Boulangists. It soon became known that the opponents of the "brav" général" had been forestalled. They had invented the nickname Barbenzigue, and arranged with the publishing house of A. Lévy & Cie. for the publication once a week of a set of comic tableaux of Boulanger's daily life under the title that we have given above. By some indiscretion their plan was disclosed, and the Boulangists, under the direction of M. Paul Deroulède, took the wind out of their sails by stealing their title and getting out a pamphlet in the opposite sense under it. This has not, however, prevented the publication of the tableaux as proposed. They appear under the title of 'Le Vrai Général Barbenzigue,' and consist of mildly amusing dialogue, with clever illustrations in outline. It is reported that A. Lévy & Cie. will bring a suit against M. Deroulède.

—Those who are curious about the 'Rig-Veda' are now enabled to read the whole of it in English. On the penultimate volume of the translation of it mainly executed by the late

Professor H. H. Wilson, of Oxford, we reported briefly in No. 1198 of the *Nation*. The greater part of that volume was the work of its editors, Professor E. B. Cowell and Mr. W. F. Webster. Of the sixth and last volume, published, like the two preceding it, by Trübner & Co., of London, Mr. Webster has had the sole editorial charge. Otherwise than was the case with the fifth volume, the rough version prepared by Professor Wilson was here left complete. This its editor has given as he found it, with the exception of correcting its obvious misrenderings, and of conforming it, by occasional indispensable alterations, to the interpretation of the commentator Sâyana, whom the Professor avowedly aimed to follow, and, so far as he understood his guide, did follow. Welcome as is his translation, something different is required, however, and, in time, doubtless will be forthcoming, towards a right appreciation of the ancient original. Simplicity of style was, of course, to be expected; and we have instead a stateliness of diction, not to say stiltedness, such as might have been looked for in a representation of Homer by Gibbon or Dr. Johnson. Moreover, modern criticism is often competent to convict Sâyana of misprision; somewhat as, at the present day, scholars are in a position to demonstrate that Spenser and his Elizabethan contemporaries in some instances misapprehended Chaucer. Yet, even from the 'Rig-Veda' as we already have it in our mother tongue, one can, no question, form a substantially accurate notion of the fancies entertained by the early Hindus touching matters supramundane. To fathom those fancies has long been to many a subject of profound interest. As we near this consummation, however, the interest which was formerly so eager, is rapidly abating. The conclusion which, on exploring the oldest of the Indian scriptures, impartial investigators have arrived at may be summed up in a very few words. It seems to be little more than that the theology, including both Brahmanism and Buddhism, of the Indo-Aryans and countless of their neighbors, took its rise from a fatuity of childishness trenching close on the inconceivable, and only slightly less absurd than the dreams of ordinary barbarians.

BANCROFT'S CALIFORNIA.—I.

California. Vol. VI. (1848-1859). [History of the Pacific States of North America. By Hubert Howe Bancroft. Vol. XVIII.] San Francisco: The History Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. xii, 787.

THIS sixth volume of Bancroft's History of California is concerned with the most important portion of the whole subject, the story of the young commonwealth from the moment of the discovery of gold to the death of Senator Broderick in 1859. The scale on which the book is written changes with the times. We have no longer the exhaustive minuteness of detail found in the earlier volumes, since the very complexity of the life of the gold period forbade the writers engaged upon these years to hope for completeness. The result has in fact been that they have contented themselves with a comparatively limited selection from the vast wealth of material at their disposal. No general reader, and possibly no subscriber to Mr. Bancroft's series, will lament this condensation; and doubtless many would have been glad of the same thing in earlier volumes. But at any rate plenty of room is left for future local historians. As to one of the most noteworthy matters in the whole history, the development of popular justice in the mines and in the great cities, this volume is especially

brief, the fuller account of the subject having been recently given in the two bulky volumes of the same series on 'Popular Tribunals'—volumes which we may notice hereafter. The present volume discusses in particular the early history of mining, from Marshall's discovery down, the growth of the cities and towns, the organization of the State Government, the character of society in the first few years, the struggles over the settlement of land titles, and the history of party warfare until the fatal duel between Terry and Broderick.

In beginning our comments, our memory naturally recurs to the earlier volumes of the series, and especially to the immediately previous one, containing the story of the conquest. This is, as we still feel, by far the strongest of Mr. Bancroft's series relating to California; and, as readers of our review of that volume may remember, we mentioned the tolerably strong case which Mr. Bancroft there makes out against the legend that England was on the very point of seizing California in 1846, when our naval force interposed to save for us the golden land. Since writing our review, a wholly new piece of evidence bearing on the subject has come into our hands, and we know of no better place than this for putting it on record, especially as it confirms Mr. Bancroft's view in quite an unexpected way. The turning-point of the whole story is this: In the early part of 1846 the beginning of the Mexican war was plainly very near. Commodore Sloat, in command of our fleet on the west coast, was lying in the harbor at Mazatlan with his flagship, the *Savannah*, waiting for news of the outbreak of hostilities. On May 17 he heard the first news of hostilities on the Rio Grande, and on May 31 wrote to the Secretary of the Navy that he was ready to sail immediately to take possession of the ports of California, in accordance with his well-known instructions of June 24, 1845. On further thought Sloat, with unpardonable timidity, resolved to wait for still more news before sailing, and actually, even after hearing of the capture of Matamoras, wrote to the Secretary on June 6 that he doubted his own authority to take the ports until a formal declaration of war should be certain. Not until the next day, June 7, did he make up his mind to leave, having received news of the blockade of Vera Cruz (see Bancroft, vol. v, pp. 206, 207). Shortly before these dates Admiral Seymour, with the British flagship *Collingwood*, had been lying in the same harbor, apparently waiting for news. Not far from the time when Sloat set out for Monterey, Seymour sailed also. Of the date of Seymour's departure no record has hitherto appeared, but on the 16th of July Seymour reached Monterey, about a week after the American occupation had been proclaimed. The British and American ships exchanged courtesies, and then the *Collingwood* sailed for the Hawaiian Islands. These are the only known facts which form the basis for the legend that Seymour had long been under orders to seize California as soon as hostilities should break out between ourselves and Mexico, that he set sail upon hearing the news of Taylor's battles, that he raced with Sloat to Monterey, and that only the superior promptness, astuteness, and seamanship of our great hero, Sloat, combined with Capt. Frémont's courage on land, saved California from British occupation.

Mr. Bancroft's arguments, as given in vol. v, are doubtless sufficient to show the improbability of the legendary portion of this story. Our new piece of evidence, very slight, but very conclusive, relates to a little matter that has heretofore always been obscure, viz., the

actual movements of the *Collingwood* at this time. "In reality," says Mr. Bancroft, vol. v, page 213, "little is known of the *Collingwood*'s trip, except the date of her arrival at Monterey. Lieut. Fred Walpole of that vessel wrote 'Four Years in the Pacific'; but he pays little or no attention to politics, or to details of the vessel's movements." Anxious to discover further evidence, if any should be accessible, as to the cruise of the *Collingwood* upon this occasion, we were led some time since to inquire of Mr. Clements Markham, the well-known English author, who, as we chanced to learn, was in 1846 serving as a young midshipman on board Admiral Seymour's flagship. Mr. Markham was unable from memory to throw any new light upon the matter, but he was kind enough to communicate for us with Admiral Lord Alcester, who, as Lieut. Beauchamp Seymour, was flag-lieutenant to his own uncle, Admiral Seymour, at the time in question. Lord Alcester's statement, which he courteously sent to us through Mr. Markham, and which he consented to have published, speaks for itself. It is under date of May, 1887:

"I know for certain that Sir George Seymour never had orders to hoist the English flag in California, or to assume the protectorate of that dependency of Mexico in 1846, or at any other time. Neither was there a race between him and Commodore Sloat as to who would reach Monterey first. If we had wanted to precede the *Savannah* there, we should not have begun by going in an opposite direction for several days; for I see by my journal that we left Mazatlan (where the *Savannah* was) on the 24th of May, 1846, arrived at San Blas, which is to the southward, on the 27th, did not leave San Blas until June 13, and arrived in Monterey on July 16. Sir George Seymour treated me with confidence on public matters, and I was completely *au fait* of all questions with which he had to deal, and of the orders he received. He went to California to protect English commerce and interests."

Lord Alcester adds in substance that the immediate reason for going was the receipt of fresh news of the unsettled condition of the country in the north. That the *Collingwood* was at San Blas at the critical moment has been asserted in one or two versions of the story, but that she went there as late as May 24, and stayed until June 13, is quite new to history.

Legends have a fashion of dying hard, and doubtless this English episode in the story of the conquest will often hereafter be repeated and enjoyed. But if records are worth more than wild surmises, and if Lord Alcester's journal outweighs the bad memories of other men, then not only is Mr. Bancroft's view of this matter irrefutably established, but the "race" between Sloat and Seymour appears in a very amusing light. Instead of "outwitting" Seymour, and getting the start of him, Sloat stayed at Mazatlan two weeks after Seymour had left. Instead of going to Monterey at once, Seymour went to San Blas. In short, while the American hero of the great "race" was lying at anchor, his English competitor in the race was sailing the other way. The whole mass of tradition about the matter, from 1848 downwards, thus becomes another interesting example of the fallibility of memory and of the vitality of delusion.

We return to the volume immediately before us. On the whole, of course, in view of the great amount of research represented, we have here the best treatment extant of the years 1848-59 in their entirety for California. As to matters of detail, the elaborate description (pp. 163-190) of the new San Francisco of 1849, the chapter on the early cities of California (ch. xviii, pp. 446-480), and the very scholarly chapter on the Mexican Land Titles (ch. xx,

pp. 529-581), are the most important treasures of information in the volume. The last-named chapter, probably from the same hand which is responsible for the clean work and sound results of vol. v, gives, so far as we know, the first accessible and fairly popular summary of all the main facts of that land litigation which for a quarter of a century meant so much evil to California. The most noteworthy cases are summarized in fine print, and in alphabetical order. The conflicting interests concerned are stated with impartiality, and the conclusions are cautiously drawn. As to more attractive topics, the chapters on the gold discovery, on the Constitutional Convention of 1849, on the mining life, and on the filibustering expeditions of Raousset and Walker, are examples of the best. These more popular chapters are decidedly unequal. That one among Mr. Bancroft's collaborators who may best be known as the Rhetorician, is occasionally allowed a freedom which he has not heretofore enjoyed during the progress of this History of California. Elsewhere in the series, as in portions of the history of the northwest coast, this unfortunate person has played altogether too large a part, and one hates to have to meet him in a region which he has usually spared. Apart from his presence, however, one feels, even where one is most in doubt about agreeing with Mr. Bancroft, the great authority which the wide use of many sources of information gives the book.

Criticism occurs to us, however, with respect to the accuracy of the use of some of this material. Where many collaborators are responsible, inconsistencies must creep in; and the less critical workers may cite as authority what their betters elsewhere expressly declare to be worthless. A remarkable case is furnished by a booklet which, as this volume now stands, takes rather too dignified a place among the authorities bearing on the first summer of gold-mining. 1848 is, in comparison to later years, a poor year for sources of information. There were very few immigrants that year by way of the Plains; the gold excitement suspended for some time newspaper publication, as well as other ordinary means of recording events; and most people in California were too busy to write coherently. Mason's and Larkin's reports, Colton's diary, and a very few other sketches, tell us all that we know of what happened among the miners that summer and autumn. In view of this fact, the little pamphlet of thirty pages entitled 'Three Weeks in the Gold Mines,' purporting to be written by "Henry I. Simpson of the New York Volunteers," and published under date of 1848, by Joyce & Co. of New York, would seem to be a very useful addition to the slender material. Yet this work has lately been more than once declared a worthless fraud, written by a man who had never seen California. In particular, Mr. Bancroft's pioneer list, in vol. iv, under the name Simpson, curtly says that nothing besides the name can be discovered as bearing upon this person, and that probably the work was a forgery, concocted in New York. Yet, in the present volume, Simpson is several times cited as authority, e. g., page 410, and, on page 97, a lengthy note gives a characterization of the pamphlet, in which it is taken in perfect good faith. Its pretentiousness is sharply criticised, as are also its entirely unauthentic illustrations, "but," says our author, "Mr. Simpson is not the only one who has attempted to enlighten the world respecting this region after a ten or twenty days' ride through it." The note closes with saying of Simpson that, notwithstanding all, "he printed a book on California gold in the year of its discovery, and

this atones for many defects. Had all done as well as this soldier-adventurer, we should not lack material for the history of California."

Lest some collector should be led by this remark of Mr. Bancroft's to regard this pamphlet as a treasure, and lest some student should cite it as characterizing correctly the glories of that first golden summer, let us call attention to pages 1 and 6 of Simpson's truthful tale. Page 1 relates how, on setting out from San Francisco for the mines, Simpson's party first passed through "flower-decked prairies" until they reached San José. Page 6, in describing the country more scientifically, says that "the valley of the Sacramento is connected with the head of the Bay of San Francisco by a delta some thirty miles in breadth, through the flowery meads of which, as I have already described, the first part of our pleasant journey lay. This delta is part of the fertile valley of San José." And so, as one sees, the Sacramento River empties into the Bay of San Francisco through a delta which lies between the towns of San Francisco and San José, and which, as page 1 tells us, is filled in August with murmuring and meandering streams, with flowers of every hue, and with several other objects well known to old-fashioned poetry. All this Simpson wrote within a few weeks from the time when, if he told the truth, he had actually ridden through the August dust and drought around the long Bay, and had found the Sacramento "delta" sixty or seventy miles distant from San José, and far to the northeast of San Francisco, while he had left San José fifty miles to the south of San Francisco. Just such geographical nonsense would be, of course, very easy if one was writing with the aid of a few books and a bad map in a far distant land. In short, Simpson, if that was his name, was a liar, and the truth was not in him, and he was probably in New York. And if he had ever seen California, he had forgotten it most thoroughly. What makes his book attractive, however, is its ingeniously circumstantial manner of narrating the wholly fictitious adventures of its heroes during their wanderings from Monterey to "Shastl Peak," as well as the artificial literary form, which throughout shows the trained and decidedly clever hack-writer. It is to be hoped that Simpson himself took the gold fever that his book was meant to produce, and, going to California, was hanged in due time under the shadow of "Shastl Peak," or elsewhere. Meanwhile he should not be quoted as authority for the life of the summer of 1848.

RECENT NOVELS.

A Man Story. By E. W. Howe. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

The Graysons: A Story of Illinois. By Edward Eggleston. With illustrations by Allegra Eggleston. The Century Co.

From Moor Isles. By Jessie Fothergill. [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

Our Phil, and Other Stories. By Katharine Floyd Dana. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1889.

Behind Closed Doors. By Anna Katharine Green. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888.

The Son of a Star: A Romance of the Second Century. By Benjamin Ward Richardson. Longmans, Green & Co.

MR. E. W. HOWE is best known as the author of 'The Story of a Country Town,' which has won high praise from two critics who have not derived their knowledge of Western life solely from books and newspapers. When Mr. Howells and Mark Twain both certify that

they have been struck by such a picture, we may be sure at least that it is worth looking at, especially when there is more agreement than we are wont to expect from critics as to what the features of the picture are. "Amid the prevailing harshness and aridity," says one of them, "there are episodes of tenderness and self-devotion that are like springs of water out of the ground." "Your pictures of the arid village life," says the other, "and the insides and outsides of its people, are vivid, and, what is more, true. I know, for I have seen it all, and lived it all." The aridity, it should be noticed, is inherent in the life described, and not in the author. What epithet would best mark the literary peculiarities of such a novel or sketch as 'A Man Story,' it is not easy to say. It is distinctly American, and it is distinctly queer. There is an atmosphere of pathos and humor combined with eccentricity which recalls Dickens—as, for instance, in the character of Joe Tack, so singularly occupied in writing spirit letters to himself from his departed wife—and again in the whole tone of the narrative, which is that of a boy relating the story of the older people with whom he lives. The plot deals with love, and is such a bewilderingly improbable story, redeemed by affecting touches, that the whole produces a sort of unearthly impression. Uncle Tom's obstinate repudiation of his wife is so wholly stupid and unnecessary that the reader wonders at times at his own interest in the story; yet we doubt if any one who reads half the book can refrain from finishing it.

The scene is laid in the very heart of the great Western divorce country—that is, somewhere where divorce is regarded as a natural consequence of any ill-assorted marriage, and where at the same time this does not interfere with a high development of fidelity and affection between those fortunately constituted mates who are designed for each other by nature. Combined with a good deal of literary cleverness, there is what an artist would complain of as a total lack of background. We feel that we are in a new place, in a society without any past, without any associations, in which (apart from the eternal passion which keeps the world going) there is nothing left of all that has made life interesting and attractive except railroads as a means of locomotion and "dry goods" as its object. The very language of the story is not the English of literature, but a curious mixture, in which a literary flavor contends with a strong disposition towards bad grammar. Altogether, is this a new species of literature, or is it merely a poor and outlandish species? Heaven forbid that we should find any fault with it as being Western. But what is it?

Mr. Eggleston's pictures of Western life are always worth reading. In 'The Graysons' he has introduced as one of his characters Abraham Lincoln—the main incident of the story being the acquittal of the hero of a charge of murder through Lincoln's dramatic exposure, on the trial, of the perjury of the principal witness for the prosecution. The plot of the story is simple enough, and is made the means of introducing us to Illinois life of a generation ago or more. The dialect is carefully given, and most of the characters drawn with distinct individuality and interest. The Graysons themselves, Tom, Barbara, and the old mother, are very well portrayed, and the attempts to lynch Tom furnish lively reading. Mr. Eggleston would probably disclaim all intention to idealize, nevertheless he contrives to infuse a dash of romance into early Western life which possibly is not true to nature, yet is not on that account necessarily reprehensible.

In 'From Moor Isles' there are two plots which ramble along side by side with a very loose bond of connection. The hero is the lover of a wicked but weak girl who, while secretly engaging herself to another, lures the devoted Brian Holgate to his ruin. This is effected by teaching him how to play poker, a game at which he is unmercifully "bluffed" by his astute rival, Dicky Law. He loses all he has in the world, including his paternal estate, Moor Isles, and at the same moment is made aware of the perfidy of the deceitful Lucy, and driven forth naked into the world. He is loved by the excellent Alice Ormerod, who has only one failing—that of unwittingly letting too many people into the secret of her love; and Alice saves him, gets him a position as secretary or assistant to a musical genius who is going to make the tour of the United States, and in the end he comes back to tell Alice of his changed fortunes and of his marriage to another—for Alice is one of those foredoomed to self-sacrifice and disappointment. The story terminates in a very pretty and pathetic scene between the two. Lucy has been killed, so that the ending of the book is generally satisfactory. Miss Fothergill has a good heart; she desires the welfare of the good and the punishment of the evil-doer, especially if the evil-doer be of her own sex; she understands, like every true woman, how to measure out justice to her own sex rather than to the other; and if there is one virtue for which she has a failing, it is that of self-sacrifice. Her men are consequently less well drawn than her women.

The art of telling stories of negro life is a rare gift, and only to be acquired by much experience and sympathy. The author of 'Our Phil' had it to a high degree. Phil himself, Aunt Rosy, and Marty are all real characters, thorough negroes; and the simple story of their lives is full of a peculiar charm. We regret to learn from the preface that the author, who published them in the *Atlantic Monthly* some fifteen years ago under the name of Olive A. Wadsworth, is no longer living. They have been republished in the belief—quite justified by the volume itself—"that they possess merit which will not only make the book a joy to her wide circle of warmly attached friends, but a pleasure to the reading public."

'Behind Closed Doors' is a story which does great credit to the author's ingenuity. Not in Gaboriau, not in Boisgobey, not even in Wilkie Collins, is a plot so laboriously involved to be found. The only difficulty with Mrs. Green's books is that she puts too great a strain on her readers' attention. It is not within the powers of the ordinary mind to retain control of the contradictory and conflicting incidents which mask the central mystery of the plot; and before we have gone very far we find ourselves rather confused than puzzled, while at the end we are not quite sure whether everything is satisfactorily explained or not. In other words, a sense of oppression is produced, which shows the construction of the story to be faulty. With a little more simplicity, 'Behind Closed Doors' would be more satisfactory and at the same time quite as lurid and blood-curdling.

"Come, my reader, come, and for a few short hours dream with me," is the not too tempting invitation with which Dr. Richardson's phantasy opens. As a matter of fact, a few short hours will not at all suffice for the mazes of a dream so ponderous and complicated. Fact and fancy, history and miracle disport themselves with a diverting interchangeability which becomes somewhat bewildering in the course of nearly five hundred closely printed pages. Beginning while the Emperor Hadrian is in Britain in the year 120, Simeon, the Son

of a Star, refusing to do him homage, is turned into a "living torch" for the amusement of the great audience collected in the circus. Enveloped in sackcloth soaked in bitumen, he is set on fire, but, escaping from the arena, and running far into the country, he puts himself out, as it were, in a pool of water. Being entirely unhurt, and finding attractive companions at hand, he journeys with them to the western coast, from which a craft having the agreeable power of travelling under water at will conveys him to a land (Ireland, presumably) called Juverna. In this abode of peace and beauty, social equality, lack of ambition, and continual summer form a state of beatitude more monotonous than the homesick heaven of modern fiction. From Juverna the reader finds himself back in Britain, then hurried off to Rome, but soon reaches Joppa, where the down-trodden Jews become his companions. Here, all varieties of excitement prevail. Plotting and counter-plotting, battles and bombshells, hold high carnival, in the midst of which Simeon arrives to lead the Jewish revolt. He is hailed as the promised Messiah and crowned king. Largely occupied in striking coins in honor of himself, he is successful for a time, until Julius Severus is sent from Britain to quell the uprising. Then, his people losing battles and faith in him together, he barely escapes alive. The mysterious craft *Leviathan* takes him back to Juverna, where, despite sovereignty, his heart has been ever with the fair Erine.

A book requiring the patient collection of so much material ought to have been great, but it is not. Simeon fails to arouse enthusiasm in the reader. Leon the philosopher, Akiba the scholar, Huldah the prophetess, with the necessarily picturesque setting of the age and time, might, in the hands of a master, have been truly memorable figures. Also, there are elements of unusual power in Elkanah, who, crucified and left for dead, yet lives for years thereafter overshadowed by the horror of that experience, and dies at last with arms outstretched as if upon a cross.

The literary style of the book is objectionable, chiefly because it is pretentious and unnatural—often bombastic; and the use of the present tense throughout is extremely wearisome. The attempted impressiveness of language strangely accords with the occasional slang and lapses in grammar now and then. Altogether, while the book is full of possibilities, the end is an unmistakable relief, when the author allows us to awaken from his dream—or nightmare.

RICHARDSON'S AMERICAN LITERATURE.

American Literature, 1607-1885. By Charles F. Richardson. Vol. II. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889.

The general quality of Mr. Richardson's second volume is not inferior to that of his first, which appeared less than a year ago. The division of his volumes is not chronological. Each covers his whole period, 1607-1885; the first being devoted to "The Development of Thought," the second to "Poetry and Fiction." The title of the first volume was not well chosen. There was much in it that had little or no relation to the development of thought. Everything was swept into it that was not poetry or fiction, and the material was so cumbersome that the treatment was often scanty and the proportions of different values were not always well observed. The last objection holds in a less degree of the second volume, implying scantiness of treatment here and there; but the material handled

is much more homogeneous, and is precisely what its title indicates.

The manner of division, which has both advantages and disadvantages, involves frequent returns upon authors considered in the first volume. Emerson is the only author who had a whole chapter to himself in the first volume who has another here. Poe was there regarded as a critic only; here his prose and verse are grouped together in one chapter, and the same method is pursued with Longfellow, though an attempt is made in general to treat poetry in the first part of the volume and fiction in the last. Cooper and Hawthorne have each liberal treatment in a separate chapter. These allotments of space indicate Mr. Richardson's impressions of relative value: Emerson first, nearest to him Hawthorne, Cooper, Longfellow, and Poe. He said in the first volume: "The three 'problematic characters' in American literature, the men whose personal qualities and whose literary work demand the most patient study and the most earnest attempt towards a just critical estimate, are Emerson, Hawthorne, and Poe."

The promise of Mr. Richardson's work in his introductory chapter was a criticism of analysis and not of exposition. To this he has not been altogether true. Leave out the expository matter, and his volumes would be very sensibly reduced. Another promise was that the laws of literary perspective should be observed; that authors should be judged in a cosmopolitan and not merely in an American spirit, their values in comparison with European authors of the highest rank determined as nearly as possible. This promise has been faithfully kept. But many difficulties arise, as with Mr. Gosse's attempt to answer the question whether any of our dead poets are entitled to be ranked with the thirteen English poets of "unassailed renown." In the course of the controversy their renown in several instances has been assailed. Mr. Richardson himself perceives that the function of the critic is something more and better than setting authors in a numerical order. This game has its attractions for critics of the highest rank. Mr. Arnold liked to play it—witness notably the criticism of Wordsworth in his just published 'Essays in Criticism.' But he did better when he endeavored to show us what was really admirable in this or that writer, and why it was so. With Mr. Richardson it is not otherwise. While in a general way his attempt to view our literature without provincial bias is to be commended, and adds much to the value of his work, his best service is not here, but in his showing of what is the peculiar strength and weakness in the poetry and fiction of American writers. Incidentally he expresses many preferences for which he assigns no reasons, and at which his readers will sometimes demur. He is not by any means disposed to regard the judgment of foreign critics on our literary productions as final, or to forget that abroad, as here, there are critics and critics, and that the praises of Poe and Miller and Whitman, if they represent a wide, do not represent a universal suffrage.

Mr. Richardson's epithets are not always fortunate. "Pious" is not a good adjective for Wordsworth; "twaddle" is not the proper word for Longfellow's inferior verse; "a later Franklin" does not suggest Dr. Holmes; nor can we find in Longfellow's 'Hyperion' anything of "*Wilhelm Meister* wholly restated and fitted for a Saxon audience." Mr. Richardson has a habit of definition by negation, as where for half a page he goes on telling us that Longfellow's lyrics are not this, that, or the other thing, which no one ever imagined that they were. In such passages the pride of

knowledge seems to get the better of the critic's art. At other times we have a looseness of expression which suggests a lack of definite meaning in the writer's mind. For example, the 'Scarlet Letter' "is the best book Hawthorne ever wrote, though comparison between it and some of his other writings is neither easy nor valuable in its results." Elsewhere we are told that "the very titles" of Edward Eggleston's tales "illuminate the scenes and characters described," and 'Roxy' is among the titles named. A more serious defect is a certain verbal prettiness, a rhetoric which we associate with "sweet girl graduates" of local seminaries rather than with the professor's chair in a New England college. Thus we have "soulful" more than once; Bryant's imagination "does not soar and sing in distant and ultimate skies"; Dante "forth fared six centuries ago"; "he forgot not"; and the alliterative title "Tones and Tendencies of American Verse." We also have considerable rhetorical fuss about one matter or another by which our apprehension is not helped at all.

But these limitations, which, perhaps, should have been waived, do not prevent Mr. Richardson's second volume from being an interesting and valuable body of criticism upon American poetry and fiction. In his introductory chapter on "Early Verse-making in America," there is no attempt to prove that any of the geese of the colonial times were swans, or to claim for Dwight and Barlow and Freneau any but the faintest praise. Hardly more is claimed for Drake and Halleck in the second chapter, on "The Dawn of the Imagination." Bryant is also treated under this head as "a poet relatively, though not absolutely of the first rank"—whatever this may mean. "Not a poet of the first rank," Mr. Richardson says further on. But in the first rank he puts Shakspere alone, and in the second Homer, Æschylus, Sophocles, Virgil, Dante, Milton, Goethe. No one would think of classing Bryant with these, but, apparently, Mr. Richardson considers him inferior to Emerson, Longfellow, Poe, Lowell, and Holmes. We say "apparently," because his gradations are not clearly marked. They vary with the point of view, as they must do. "Bryant resembles Emerson," he says, "in the characteristic of uniformity"—of un-uniformity would be truer. Both ranged through widely differing degrees of excellence. The treatment of Longfellow is extremely sympathetic, and leaves little to desire. "All in all, Longfellow has been the nation's poet," though he has less philosophic depth and insight than Emerson, less music than Poe, less energy than Whittier and Lowell, and of humor next to none. In his sympathetic quality is found his rarest gift. As for his hexameters, the wonder is they are so good. Poe has for Mr. Richardson a remarkable fascination. Beyond the liberal space allotted to him, the references to him are numerous; but the final judgment is not too favorable. It is not more favorable than Mr. Woodberry's in his admirable life of Poe, or than Mr. Stedman's in his 'Poets of America.' The chapter on Emerson is appreciative of his lyrical perfection, too seldom sought or found, his felicity of phrase, and his penetrating thought.

Under the heading, "Poets of Freedom and Culture," we have a consideration of Whittier, Lowell, and Holmes. The reader will expect Whittier and Lowell to be the poets of freedom, Lowell and Holmes the poets of culture. But Mr. Richardson would have us regard Holmes also as a poet of freedom. A patriotic poet he has surely been, but he never sang one anti-slavery line in the anti-slavery conflict, and he sang the praise of Daniel Webster after

his miserable fall. The chapter on "Tones and Tendencies of American Verse" covers a multitude of names and still lacks completeness. There are less known poets than any mentioned here that are of equal if not greater worth.

The beginnings of American fiction are divided between Irving and Charles Brockden Brown. The chapter on Cooper is very much upon the lines of Mr. Lounsbury's admirable *Life*. The criticism of Hawthorne is in a tone of cordial admiration. The denial to Hawthorne of any morbid quality is overdone. The closing chapters, on "The Lesser Novelist" and "Later Movements in American Fiction," are much crowded, but the necessity for condensation is always helpful to Mr. Richardson's force and style. A good many of the judgments have in them too much of the personal equation. Of these are the judgment that 'Nathaniel Hawthorne and his Wife' is the best biography written in America, and the general opinion of Mr. Julian Hawthorne's work; another is that Mr. Howells's 'Modern Instance' is his strongest work in his later manner. On page 435 we are told that 'Roderick Hudson' and 'The Portrait of a Lady' are Mr. James's best novels, and on page 438 that 'The Bostonians' is his masterpiece. Mr. Richardson's admiration for Mr. James is of the qualified sort.

A book like this profits us by the antagonisms it excites as well as by the things that we accept. There are books which treat of parts of Mr. Richardson's subject much more justly and delicately than he can do within his narrower scope, or could if he had freest range. Mr. Moses Coit Tyler's 'History of American Literature' is incomparably richer than Mr. Richardson's early chapters; Mr. Stedman's criticism of the poets has much more of nice discrimination; the lives of Emerson and Irving and Poe and Cooper, in the "American Men of Letters" series, are far more satisfactory than the chapters here, and Mr. James's 'Hawthorne,' with all its faults, has merits to which Mr. Richardson cannot attain. Moreover, there are separate essays, such as Mr. Morley's upon Emerson and Mr. Hutton's upon Hawthorne, that make Mr. Richardson's work seem poor indeed. But even for those who have these things at hand, Mr. Richardson's volumes will be valuable on account of their extended scope, their suggestion of many fading reputations, their challenge of opinion so frankly given all along. The poets, the novelists, and the critics will take little pleasure in them, but a multitude of the general public will find them stimulating and instructive, and will gird themselves to follow up some of the less frequented roads on which Mr. Richardson has travelled with a jocund mind.

A History of Charles the Great (Charlemagne). By J. I. Mombert, D.D., author of 'Handbook of the English Versions,' etc. D. Appleton & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. 564.

DR. MOMBERT has made too big a book of his 'Charles the Great'—not too big for the subject or the materials, but for his treatment of the subject and use of the materials. His treatment is wholly popular and essentially narrative; but the present generation is too busy and too abundantly supplied with reading matter to care for a narrative, on the scale of this book, of the events even of so important a life as that of Charles the Great. Such a treatment, limited in its scope and incomplete in the view which it presents, would be well enough for a moderate-sized volume, such as we find in the various series of biographies

with which the market abounds; but a volume of the bulk of the one before us can only justify itself by a scholarly and approximately complete study of its subject.

When we speak of the view as incomplete, we do not mean in the ground that it covers, but in the treatment. It is a book of detail, not of generalization. The author has faithfully and industriously collected all the materials that bear upon his subject, and has, of course, grouped these materials into chapters under their several heads. But in the treatment of any given subject, the items of information are, as it were, strung along, with little attempt to combine them in their larger relations, or to give them their due emphasis. The very construction of the paragraphs is after this fashion. They are of the vicious style so much affected by the French, often consisting of single sentences, so that a page may contain six or eight short paragraphs. This may be very effective in connection with a brilliant, epigrammatic style, but it is fatal to the dignity and consecutiveness required by a work of this kind. These are not true paragraphs, for a paragraph should have an independence and structural completeness which are missed by this method of composition.

This defect is well illustrated by Book iii, chapter i, "The Diet and the Capitularies." This chapter afforded an opportunity of analyzing and classifying the legislation of Charles the Great, and placing it before the reader in an intelligible and instructive summary. But the method pursued is that of enumeration rather than generalization. Many interesting and important facts are told, some capitularies are given in abstract—and this work is well and skilfully done; but at the end the reader has failed, after all, to get an idea of what Charles aimed to accomplish, or what he actually did accomplish. For example, we do not remember that any distinct mention is made of that feature of policy which shows perhaps more clearly than any other the true greatness of Charles, and stamps him as an enlightened statesman—his steady effort to protect the common freemen, the better class of the peasantry, against the exactions and encroachments of power. The effort was of course unsuccessful in the long run: economic and political forces were working against him too strongly for even his gigantic powers; but it was something to hold these forces in check for a season, and maintain partially and temporarily the existence of that class upon which national well-being must in large part rest. This settled policy of Charles the Great gives the key to many legislative acts which, taken by themselves, appear only as curious bits of antiquarianism.

This policy, for example, explains the reorganization of the military system, as worked out in the capitularies of 806 and 807. This is totally misconceived by Dr. Mombert, who, curiously enough, brings in the account of this legislation in connection with the Saxon wars, some twenty years before it was effected, and gives it a wholly misleading interpretation. His words are (p. 103): "He devised the plan of combining the old military constitution of the Franks with the feudal system; in virtue of which not only his vassals and their liege-men, but also all freemen possessed of independent freehold property, were bound to march against the enemy." Now, in the first place there was at this time no feudal system, but only some germs of feudal institutions, partially developed. The military system was that here described, the *heerbann*, or "universal obligation to military service" resting on all freemen, not those alone of "independent freehold proper-

ty." The legislation in question, coming at the very close of Charles's reign, was not designed to combine this universal obligation of service with feudalism (as was the object of the Assize of Arms of Henry II.), but, in view of the increasing power of the lords, and the diminishing resources of the peasants, to commute this universal service in the way described in the text. So far, therefore, from his military institutions being "the most onerous and least popular of his government," they were among those which exhibited most clearly his wise and humane statesmanship.

The whole subject of institutions is indeed treated very inadequately, as could not but be the case with an author who cites no modern writer in relation to them later than Hallam and Guizot. We find (p. 66) the astonishing statement "that the terms 'duke' and 'count' were simply official designations, unconnected with the geographical and political division of the country"—a statement which is true for modern times, but exactly the opposite of the truth for the time in question, when counts and dukes were simply appointed governors of administrative districts. On the next page we have a passage of some length from Montesquieu, describing the military system of the Franks. Now, Montesquieu is a writer full of wisdom and abounding in instructive suggestions; but the scholarship of his age did not make it possible to understand in detail the forms and institutions of the Frank period. We find, in relation to these institutions, no citations from Waitz, Roth, Sohm, Brunner, or Fustel de Coulanges, and, in regard to economic history, none from Von Maurer, Inama-Sternegg, or Lamprecht. But the political and economical conditions of these times cannot be comprehended without the study of these writers and others of their class.

These are the defects of the book. As a narration we have already said that it has many merits, although always suffering from the method of composing by detail rather than by grouping and combining. The judgments are generally sound and often sagacious. The original authorities have been carefully studied—and here in the best editions—and generally well combined. The remarks on the coronation of Charles (p. 364) are shrewd, and contain what is to us a new explanation of Charles's ostensible indignation—that he had intended, as in the case of his son's coronation, to place the crown upon his head with his own hands, and that Leo's act excited his indignation as being unauthorized and unexpected. There are a good genealogical table, map, and index. In the note to page 45, *Gravidus* should read *Gratius*.

Portfolio Papers. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton. Boston: Roberts Bros.

MR. HAMERTON'S latest book shows all the qualities of his former work. The placid good sense, the absence of exaggeration, the clearness and precision of statement, and the capacity for saying simple things, that have made him the first of English-speaking critics of art, are all as marked as ever. The last of these qualities seems to us the rarest of all. Mr. Hamerton never takes anything for granted, never assumes a knowledge in his reader which he may not possess. He has a wonderful gift of understanding ignorance, and, at the risk of seeming tedious or superfluous to the initiated, explains clearly and simply, in language to be understood of all, things that most artists and critics have known so long that they have half forgotten them, or have, at least, forgotten that all the world is not as wise as they. This is the

essence of all teaching, and when combined, as it is here, with a wide practical and theoretical knowledge of the subject to be taught, and with a clear brain and an unbiassed judgment, it gives us the ideal teacher. It would hardly be too much to say that Mr. Hamerton has done more for the education in sound ideas of art of the English-speaking public than all other critics together.

The present volume is not as important as some that have preceded it, being, as the title indicates, a collection of miscellaneous papers from the *Portfolio*. It is divided into four parts—Notices of Artists, Notes on *Æsthetics*, Essays, and Conversations. The Notices of Artists are five in number, and deal with Constable, Etty, Chintreuil, Guignet, and Goya. That on Constable contains, as a matter of course, the old anecdote about Sir George Beaumont's "brown tree," and Constable's remark that he did not find it difficult to determine where to place it, as he "never put such a thing into a picture." After looking at his pictures now in the Metropolitan Museum, one wonders whether they were painted before this conversation, or whether the story is apocryphal. Or is it that our standard of brownness has changed, and that these trees were green in comparison with those of Sir George? Possibly the color is much changed with age.

The paper on Goya is the most interesting of the five, but here Mr. Hamerton shows that if he is the best of British critics, he is still British, and not quite exempt from insularity. His Anglo-Saxon moral sense is aroused by the not very savory personal character of the Spanish artist, and he is as nearly savage in his denunciation of man and work as is possible to his nature. Indeed, Macaulay himself could hardly use stronger language than is contained in this notice. Mr. Hamerton maintains that "the celebrity of the artist is in great part political, and not artistic in its origin," and protests that "the qualities of artist and politician are in themselves distinct, and they ought to be kept so." We cannot avoid thinking, however, that he has himself been guilty of a similar confusion of ideas, and has been led by his reprobation of Goya's moral character to undervalue his art. He certainly lays himself open to such a charge when he says, "Such coloring as I have seen of his is foul and filthy to the last degree; and I have a difficulty in understanding how a man so restless, so irritable, and so degraded by mental and physical vice could at any time color tenderly, delicately, and purely. I have believed hitherto that the power of fair coloring was reserved for serene and elevated natures." This is an artistic heresy of the kind with which Ruskin has familiarized us, and is astonishing from a man of Mr. Hamerton's usual good sense and knowledge of the history of art. Fortunately, such slips are rare, and even here the saving clause is added—"but there may be exceptions to the rule, if it is a rule."

Something like racial bias crops out again in the notes on *Æsthetics*, in discussing idiosyncrasy, where he says, "In the fine arts we owe to idiosyncrasy that charm of infinite variety which so vastly increases the interest of our exhibitions. This variety has been greater in England than elsewhere, because our artists have been less moulded by a common system of authoritative education than the artists of the Continent, and also because Englishmen have a natural turn for the development of individual peculiarities." And again, "The moral of all this is, that we can hardly be too careful to preserve so precious a thing as the inborn quality of a person." Of course this is perfectly true, and of course Mr. Hamerton

is not indifferent to the value of education; yet one receives somehow an impression that he has little sympathy with the classical ideal of an impersonal art, perfect in itself, which is at the foundation of academical training and which has so generally prevailed among the Latin races. There is a slight, a very slight, trace of the same natural bias in favor of the individual rather than the impersonal, later in the volume, in the sound and admirable essay on "Style." It would be strange indeed if a critic were absolutely without any of the prejudices of his race and country, and these slight instances are only rendered conspicuous by our author's habitual breadth of view.

One of the most novel and interesting of the Notes on *Æsthetics* is No. 8: "Right and left not indifferent in Art." The writer states his conclusions on this subject in the form of two rules, which we will quote:

"(1.) Whenever there is an issue from the picture along which the imagination of the spectator will be enticed to travel, as, for instance, an opening to the distance in a landscape, it ought to be, if possible, to the spectator's right.

"(2.) Whenever there is a large mass that blocks up the composition, it ought to be, if possible, on the spectator's left. It follows from this, that when there are two masses, one on each side, as often happens in the side scenes of a theatre, and in pictures arranged on the same principle, it is the larger and more important of these that should be placed on the left."

We have not space for the discussion of this curious discovery, or of the probable reasons in the physiology of the brain and in the European method of writing, etc., for this principle of *æsthetics*; but we feel sure that many artists, their attention once called to the matter, will be surprised to find how generally they have instinctively obeyed Mr. Hamerton's rules.

The volume contains, besides that on "Style" already mentioned, short essays on "Soul and Matter in the Fine Arts," on "The Nature of the Fine Arts," and on the question, "Can Science help Art?" and concludes with some imaginary "Conversations" between an artist, a critic, a poet, and a scientist, on the subject of book illustration. These, while they contain a great deal of truth, are perhaps the least valuable part of the book.

There is only a very meagre table of contents, and the proof-reading has been poor, and printer's errors are rather abundant.

Jonathan and His Continent. (Rambles through American Society.) By Max O'Rell and Jack Allyn. Translated by Madame Paul Blouët. Cassell & Co.

"MAX O'RELL" has a genuine gift for social observation, or he could never have written 'John Bull and His Island.' So much we knew before, and now no candid American reader will deny that in this study of the manners and customs of the United States he has made a decided hit. It is not that the book is very deep or very wise, or contains much that is new and important; but it is the work of an observer of a certain originality of style, who has occasionally the gift of insight, and who has the art of telling disagreeable truths without giving offence. This is the art which the English observer of American institutions and manners finds it so hard to acquire. He forms judgments which when expressed leave a sting behind, partly because they are produced as judgments, and not as impressions, and partly because they are produced with an air of authority only to be explained by the assumption that the observer is, by the fact of his nationality, placed above those he criticises. Mrs. Trollope and Dickens told the truth about the

America of their day, as any one will see who takes the trouble to look into their books—and very amusing reading they are, by the way—but they lashed the provincialism of the country into a fury. Max O'Rell is full of things displeasing to our vanity, and it is by no means simply because we are grown too large and powerful to care that we are not irritated by them. It is also because what he says neither expresses nor implies superiority—he does not seek to establish that gallant relation of critic and victim which sets at naught the rights of man and the Declaration of Independence, and tramples under foot the axiom that one man is as good as another.

Max O'Rell would not for a moment deny that American civilization is as high as any in the world (though he thinks that the French are perhaps a little happier), but he notes here and there little peculiarities, more or less important, such as lack of manners, devotion to money-making, laxity of the marriage tie, bad cooking, etc., etc., which are features of American life—all with a pleasant, cheery, sympathetic smile which disarms antagonism. We all have our weaknesses, he seems to say; in examining and reporting upon what they are we are engaged in an improving occupation, which may make us wiser, and need not leave us any sadder than we were before. It is not necessary to be profound, nor even painfully accurate. Max O'Rell is often decidedly inaccurate. For instance, though the cost of living is undoubtedly far higher here than in England or France, it is rather a figure of speech to say that in the United States "you get for your dollar but the worth of a shilling in English money or a franc in French." When a comparison is made between a hotel bedroom in France at five francs a day and the same apartment in America at five dollars, M. O'Rell seems to forget that the latter includes meals. It is true that the cab which costs you eighteen pence in England will cost you a dollar and a-half in New York, but it is not true that "the proportion is always kept" (p. 307). If it were, it would cost exactly four times as much to live in New York as in London. In the same way, we are told that receipts are enormous, too: "a newspaper article for which would be paid in France from 100 to 250 francs (and no French paper except the *Figaro* pays so much for articles) is paid for in America from \$100 to \$250." He does not mention what paper rewards its staff in this way. Little errors of this sort in the work of an English critic would attract much hostile attention, but in our good friend Max O'Rell we pass them smiling by.

It is difficult to make extracts; but one or two good points we must notice, on account of the pleasure they have given us. Every one is familiar with that pest of railroad travel in the United States, the man who appears from time to time, now with books, now with prize-candy packages, now with pop-corn balls—and with his habit of depositing his wares upon the lap of the unfortunate passengers. Of the patience with which this abuse is tolerated Max O'Rell says: "The Americans have the patience of angels. I have seen them for five or six hours refuse, with the politest signs of the head, the different articles of these ambulant bazaars. They seem to say, That creature is very annoying, a terrible nuisance; but I suppose we must all get a living somehow." Is not this correct, and shrewd, too? The best part of this criticism, however, is the sequel. The author became so much interested in this "ambulant bazaar" that he tracked him to his lair, his depot of supplies in the baggage-car, where he found him at his toilet. The stranger watched him with interest. "When his toilet was corru-

pleted he turned round, and, seeing that I was looking at him, he threw me a patronizing glance, eying me from head to foot. I thought he was about to say, 'What is it you want?' 'Well, business is looking up, eh?' I hazarded. 'Mind your own d—d business,' he replied; turning on his heels, he departed."

Again, every one will recognize the force of an observation which is particularly true of the West—that the genuine American is unwilling to admit being *bored*. To illustrate this, we are given an account of a conversation on the subject of a railroad journey the greater part of which lay through a dreary forest. When asked what he thought of that part of the country, the author suggested that it was a little uninteresting. But he found, to his surprise, that the American view of the subject was that it was "immense—like everything else in the country, immense." Whatever opinion we may hold about this particular journey, we believe it is strictly true that one of the striking features of American civilization (as distinguished from English) is the unwillingness to admit that you are "bored," and the correlative determination (also noticed by Max O'Rell) to insist that you have had a "good time," no matter how untrue to the facts it may be. Is this part of a real universal happiness, which such an observer as Mr. Bryce finds here (but of which Max O'Rell seems doubtful), or is it assumed with an eye to business, in the belief that people who are easily bored and not interested are not those who get most orders and the largest trade?

Everybody who observes men and cities has a theory about them, more or less preconceived, into which facts must be made to fit. De Tocqueville explained everything he saw as an effect of democracy and equality. These were the efficient causes of all the phenomena of American life. Max O'Rell's cause is what the late John Stuart Mill, in his scorn, called "dollar-hunting." It is as a dollar-hunting animal that he studies the American. When he notices anything novel or peculiar, the first question he asks himself is, "How is this trait connected with the pursuit of money?" Of course, pushed to an extreme, this method of analysis would reduce everything to an absurdity; but part of the author's cleverness consists in not pushing anything to an extreme. We feel the influence of his theory without being shocked by it. We do not arise in our wrath and exclaim: "What! would you attribute to this young and vigorous democracy, glowing with hope and manly pride, a single motive—and that the lowest of all? Do you really think that money and money-making furnish the universal standards of life in the United States?" On the contrary, we smile and reflect that, after all, there is a good deal to be said for the theory now, as a generation ago our fathers thought there was a good deal to be said for De Tocqueville's.

Logic; or, The Morphology of Knowledge. By Bernard Bosanquet, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1888. 8vo, 2 vols. xvii., 398, viii., 240.

MR. BOSANQUET is a high priest of Neo-Hegelianism, and his 'Logic' may be considered as an *ex-cathedra* statement, especially if contrasted with that somewhat heretical book, Mr. Bradley's 'Principles of Logic,' which called out our author's criticism a few years ago. If Mr. Bosanquet writes with one eye upon the authors of such all-round works as Wundt's and Lotze's, he certainly writes with the other upon Mr. Bradley alone. But his work is a complete treatise, more so than Bradley's own

snapping denunciation of "the diffident admirers of the phenomenal world." He has left no important phase of his subject without a thorough discussion; but, on the other hand, his volumes lack the interest which Mr. Bradley's highly charged style gives to 'The Principles of Logic.'

The author's *πῶς στῶ* is at the centre of reality. The judgment is our continued construction of this reality. The great assumption of all thought is the *systematic* character of this reality, and so the only canon of our thinking is the internal coherence of the system we construct. The articulation of means and ends, either in a real teleology or in the *de facto* teleology in which we assume that nature works, is the guiding principle of our analogical inference, and the unity of the complete system, when reached, the guide of our deductive inference. Inference, which will be found in all judgment, is the passage through the universal from one of its differences to another, and the judgment itself is but the continued construction of this universal. This is a very bare, and therefore a probably rather unintelligible, account of the line along which Mr. Bosanquet discusses the problems of logic.

He parts company with Mr. Bradley at the very outset; for Mr. Bradley finds no subject in the proposition, but considers that the entire ideal content of the proposition is asserted of a reality which is outside the proposition. Mr. Bosanquet does not deny the ideal unity of the judgment, but finds it to be the unity of reality itself. Since we are constructing this reality in judgment, the relations of the judgment can be the relations of the reality, and there can then be predication within the judgment. This is the fundamental difference between Mr. Bradley and Mr. Bosanquet. The others follow naturally, Mr. Bradley's standpoint being not at the centre of reality but outside it.

Unfortunately, Mr. Bosanquet is most obscure here where he should be most luminous. But in his treatment of the abstractions of space, time, and number, he has given one of the clearest expositions that can be found, and almost as much can be said of his treatment of inference. This part of his work is so admirably done that one deplores the more the frequent lapses into obscurity. Mr. Bosanquet has sometimes the habit of thinking aloud in condensed and complicated sentences, that would require the labor of hours to unravel. Being sure of his field, he flies over it, heedless whether the reader is with him or not. In a word, his book is written esoterically, or for the intellectual aristocracy in the universities. The writer has not brought himself down to the level of those readers whom Mill addressed, and who study Spencer, Huxley, and Bain today. An author has perhaps the right to choose his audience; but when we remember how much the public needs to be educated away from the crude logical dualism of a dead matter of knowledge entirely divorced from the living mind which knows it, we cannot but feel that writers of Mr. Bosanquet's power and freedom from superstition have a mission to the people as well as to the aristocracy.

It is the belief in the objectivity of reason which is the animus of all this high thinking; and, clothed in the right forms of statement, this belief is just as appreciable by the ordinary mind as the phenomenalism of the "advanced thinkers," besides having a spiritualizing power which the latter kind of thought has not. We have yet to be taught that under each perception lies a mass of unanalyzed relations; that our crude reflections have no claim to finality; that we cannot approach nature at

any point without finding the existence of thought and ideals. The men who should teach us all this are Mr. Bosanquet and his fellows. It is matter for deep regret that their indifference to popularity in style should deprive them of so large a sphere of effectiveness.

A Manual of Decorative Composition for Designers, Decorators, Architects, and Industrial Artists. By Henri Mayeux, Architect to the French Government and Professor of Decorative Art in the Municipal Schools of Paris. Translated by J. Gonino. Illustrated by nearly 300 engravings. D. Appleton & Co. 1888. Pp. ix, 310.

THE reader of this book is often puzzled by the vagueness of its phraseology. Statements and principles are made in such language that the reader finds that even a second reading fails to fix in the mind any positive meaning: the words, indeed, mean something and the sentence can be parsed, but what is it that the writer has intended to say? For example, on page 89, at the beginning of a paragraph, and with nothing going before to explain what is coming, we find: "Bands are introduced on vessels in order to avoid undue redundancy of form, and to invest them at the same time with an appearance of solidity. This important principle was never absent from the Greek or Etruscan artist's mind, and is also well remembered in most work of our own days. It need hardly be said that their application on re-creating forms would be most incongruous." A cut, three pages further on, bears the legend "Horizontal Bands applied to form," but nowhere does the text allude to it. What is meant one can only guess. But reference to the French original, page 95, tells us in a moment what Mr. Mayeux meant; he is speaking of the employment of decorative bands at certain parts of a piece which has a surface of revolution (such as most vases have, a shape that might be turned in a lathe), especially at those parts which approach a cylindrical form; he refers to his Cut 78, and goes on as follows: "The necessity of maintaining and hooping (*cercler*) the form, as a belt or a band of leather or metal would do, seems to be the reason for this; if placed on the receding (*fuyantes*) parts of the surface, these bands would seem about to slip, and would be incomprehensible." That is perfectly clear, and it is a fairly satisfactory statement of a principle in design which, however, should be discussed at greater length to be of any value to a beginner. But the English book misses it altogether.

It is generally the case, throughout the book, that the so-called translator has used the original text merely as notes for his guidance in writing a fresh text of his own. It is often very difficult and sometimes impossible to find in the one book even the paragraph which corresponds with a given paragraph of the other. In the sweep of his ready writing, the author of the English version often fails to allude, even, to the cuts incrustated in his text. Moreover, it appears, as would be expected of such careless work, that the translator is not particular about his technical terms and names of objects, materials, and processes, but takes them as they stand in the French, untranslated, or translates them at haphazard. This is aggravated by the giving of legends to many cuts which have none in the original; and in these, where he has no support, the translator is free to blunder. There are several notable instances of such blundering, but the reader of the English version may take Cut 219, on page 228, and see whether he can make sense of the legend; and may then try to make sense of what is said

on this and the following pages about the process which Cut 219 is supposed to represent. In the French text a rare but perfectly well-known process is briefly described.

The question whether a book upon the principles of design can be of any great use to students is a very difficult one, perhaps to be answered only by long experience of the attempted employment of such a one as a sort of textbook for the pupils of an atelier or a school of art. Principles of artistic and decorative design may indeed be explained in words, but only by a sympathetic speaker to an attentive audience. Every assertion must be given so carefully, so suggestively, with such large allowance for exceptions, for contradictory or seemingly contradictory truths, and for difference in situation, materials, and conditions, that the lecturer must have a quick eye for his hearers' comprehension, or he is lost. Whether any clearness of statement and feeling for his readers' needs will enable a writer so to address the readers of his printed thoughts, is doubtful. The subtlety of those general truths in art the application of which to special cases constitutes what we call *design*, may be too great for a handbook to contain. In Mr. Mayeux's book there are assuredly a great number of sound maxims and a great deal of just appreciation.

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Bullen, A. H. The Works of Dr. Thomas Campton. London: The Cheswick Press.
Burnett, Mrs. Frances Hodgson. Theo: A Novel. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.
Carpenter, W. B. Nature and Man. With an Introductory Memoir by J. Estlin Carpenter. D. Appleton & Co.
Carson, H. L. History of the Celebration of the One Hundredth Anniversary of the Promulgation of the Constitution of the United States. 2 vols. With illustrations. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
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